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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 161

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

Mr. Bryan at Topeka 164
Senator Hanna on Prosperity 164
The Neely Case 165
The Hunting of the Trust 166
On Translating the 'Arabian Nights.'—I 167

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

The Paris Exposition.—VIII 168

CORRESPONDENCE:

The Music Hall and the Boer 169
The State of Italy 169
The Muslim Legality of Chess 170
The Fortunes of a Plagiarism 170

NOTES 171

BOOK REVIEWS:

Cobbold's Innermost Asia 174
The Jeffersonian Cyclopædia 175
Notes on a Century of Typography at the University Press, Oxford, 1693-1794 176
A Book for All Readers 177
The Causes of the War of 1792 177
The Theory of Electrolytic Dissociation 178

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 178

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 30, 1900.

The Week.

The situation of the allies in Pekin recalls Napoleon's at Moscow, except that occupation was not had without fighting. The Imperial Government has fled to parts unknown, and no one has come forward to do homage to the victors or to negotiate for submission and indemnity. The continued presence of the legations has, therefore, a superfluous air, and that of the allied forces itself tends to become somewhat absurd, so long as China is content to get along without control of the imperial city. Our own part in the tragi-comedy is coming home to us forcibly, and all that can be said is, that we are trying to get out by not going deeper in. The diversion of troops from Taku to Manila points partly to this resolve of the Administration, but also to tne essential weakness of our situation caused by the need of all the troops that can be spared to maintain our fighting strength in the Philippines.

As is to be expected, newspaper opinion on this subject, while generally agreeing that the policy of this country in the Chinese complication has been wise, shows considerable divergence as to the course which should now be pursued. The Washington *Post* and the Philadelphia *Times*, for example, insist that the troops should be recalled at once, as soon as the rescue of the legations has been accomplished, while the Philadelphia *Ledger* declares that the President "should use as much diligence in getting all Americans, civil and military, out of China, as he exhibited in providing for the relief of Pekin." On the other hand, the Boston *Journal* bluntly affirms that "American soldiers are in China for more than the mere march to Pekin," and the Cleveland *Leader* insists that the troops "must be left where they are until a satisfactory settlement has been arrived at." It is generally assumed that the United States cannot stay its hand until it has obtained satisfactory guarantees of indemnity and future peace, but there is practical accord in wishing to see this result accomplished with as little international complication as possible, and with scrupulous regard for our own declarations. We are glad to see that the notion of a permanent military occupation of China, or the acquisition of territory in that part of the world, meets with no favor in the press of either party.

The race riot at Akron, O., last week was in some respects the most significant and disquieting of the many such occurrences in various parts of the country during the last few years. Akron is neither a town in a "black belt" of the South, nor a great city in the North. It is situated in the northeastern part of Ohio, is the county seat of Summit County, and so recently as 1890 had less than 28,000 inhabitants. It is in that Western Reserve region which was largely settled from New England, and, until the rise of manufacturing industries, was the old-fashioned shire town of a rural county. Even despite the modification which its population has undergone during the past quarter of a century, in which it has grown from about 10,000 to about 40,000 people, it must still have a strong leaven of the old spirit which gave to the district a distinctive and elevated tone. The negro element in the population is very small. In 1890 there were only 451 blacks in a total of 27,601 (the 27,601st being a Chinaman). In other words, the colored contingent was only 2 per cent. as large as the white ten years ago, and there is no reason to suppose that it has gained materially since 1890. The crime which provoked the riot was one which often arouses a community to a high pitch of excitement when the criminal is a white man, but the fury of the Akron mob was plainly aggravated by the fact that the offender was a black man and his victim a white girl. When it was at last proved that the particular black man sought had been spirited away by the officers beforehand, cries arose, "Lynch any nigger," "Get a nigger outside," and the only safety for any colored person was to keep indoors. The destruction of the City Hall by dynamite followed. The police did not strike hands with the mob, as in this city the other day, but were miserably impotent. A Texan town meeting has passed a satirical resolution on the barbarism of this outbreak, but it is clear to any candid observer that wherever such crimes are perpetrated and tolerated by the community, the publicity now given to them makes them contagious over all the land. The South must share the shame with Akron.

The melancholy condition of apathy which causes so much concern to Senator Hanna is likely to be ended if Mr. Bryan keeps on talking as plainly as he did on August 16. He took hold of one of the most cherished of the Republican scarecrows—the awful sacrilege of hauling down "Old Glory"—and showed up its composition very happily. He pointed out that the Administration is now engaged in hauling down the flag in Alaska, for the very good reason that it was flying over territory that did not belong to us. He asked whether the fact that the flag had been raised over Pekin compelled us to maintain an army permanently there to keep it from being hauled down. And he inquired particularly as to the matter of hauling down the flag in Cuba. Is President McKinley going to haul down our flag when tne Cubans set up a government, or not? If he is not going to haul it down, what is the meaning of our talk of Cuban freedom and independence? If he is going to haul it down, what does he mean by talking as if the act were sacrilege? On this subject Mr. Bryan has scored a distinct advantage. He has offered the Republican orators a dilemma, from which they can escape only after the manner of the cuttlefish. They have formed the habit of uttering a large quantity of cant and bombast and platitude, and passing it off on patient audiences with the idea that it would be received as profound wisdom. Now they have to deal with an orator who is not afraid to expose their sham patriotism, and who makes their most exalted and impressive appeals ridiculous. Mr. Bryan is vulnerable enough himself, but his adversaries are vulnerable on the subjects which most interest the public, and, in spite of their protests and evasions, he seems likely to keep them on the defensive.

Mr. Bryan did not confine himself to ridiculing the Republicans, but laid down some sound and true doctrine concerning Imperialism in general, and its results in the Philippines in particular. Imperialism, he declared, is the doctrine of the bully and the coward. The spirit that carried us into the Philippine Islands will lead us wherever we can find a people weak enough to be conquered. He took the position, clearly and definitely, that we have no title to the Philippine Islands, according to the Declaration of Independence. We cannot buy people. It is better to have two flags, representing two republics, than one republic representing an empire; and when the American flag comes down in the Philippine Islands, it will be replaced by the flag of a republic established by their inhabitants. This bold and aggressive attitude will be likely to win over many doubtful voters to Mr. Bryan's support. It appeals to the sentiments of justice and generosity in mankind, and such sentiments are very powerful political forces when they can be aroused. To meet these appeals the Republicans are miserably equipped. So far as justice is concerned, all that they can plead is that we paid Spain twenty millions of dollars for her title to the Philippines, at the end of a war waged on the ground that her colonial government was so

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bad as to annul her title to Cuba. On the score of generosity, the best that the Republicans can say is that our Government has killed a large number of Filipinos in order to impart civilization to the survivors.

The Republican State Convention in Washington week before last showed how little foundation there is for the confidence which Bryan expressed in a Nebraska speech, the other day, that nobody who voted for him on the issues of 1896 has changed his mind on those issues. Four years ago the silver sentiment was so strong in Washington that 112 out of 402 delegates favored putting a free-coinage plank in the platform, and, when election day came, Bryan swept the State for "16 to 1" by a plurality of 12,500. In the late convention not a voice was raised in favor of free coinage; satisfaction was expressed that "the Democratic heresy of free silver has been put to sleep by a Republican Congress," and the party pointed with pride to the fact that "the gold standard has been reaffirmed in the most positive and satisfactory manner." Washington is thus in line with its neighbor, Oregon, where in 1896 a majority of the Republican State Convention voted against putting a declaration opposing free coinage in the platform, and adopted instead a "straddle," while this year it was declared that "the maintenance of the gold standard is the most important political issue." Such proofs of returning sanity are most welcome.

Secretary Gage's interview, published on Monday, telling what a Secretary of the Treasury could do if he desired to put the country off the gold standard, will command the attention of the country. It ought to bring out a reply from Mr. Bryan, but he happens to be sitting between two stools. If he should say that a Secretary appointed by himself could not, or would not, upset the gold standard, then he would place himself in opposition to the bulk of his own party and to the logic of his own platform. If he should say that his Secretary of the Treasury could and would use all the means at his command to promote bimetallism at the ratio of 16 to 1, "without waiting for the aid or consent of any other nation," then he would repel many votes which he might otherwise receive from the Gold Democrats and Independents. It is probable, therefore, that he will continue to say nothing on the subject, and that Secretary Gage will be without an opponent.

Mr. Gage's first contention is that Mr. Bryan could order his Secretary to make payments in silver of all the public debt that is payable in "coin" and for all current disbursements of the Government. He points out, however, that a practical difficulty would be found in the fact that the Government has only $16,000,000 of silver dollars of its own on hand, all the rest of them belonging to the holders of silver certificates now in circulation. The paying out of $16,000,000 in silver would be an inconvenience both to the Government officers who should handle them, and to the persons required to accept them, but the latter would find ways to use them, as Mr. Gage observes, at the custom-houses and the internal-revenue offices. One of the practical consequences which should not be overlooked would be the establishment of a premium on gold equal to the cost of handling the silver dollars. Sixteen million cart-wheel dollars will not cart themselves. Force must be applied and cost incurred, and the freight bill must be paid out of the freight. Sixteen million silver dollars weigh upwards of five hundred tons. We do not see how a premium on gold could be avoided under such circumstances. But a premium on gold, however slight or however incurred, would have a very disturbing effect on the public imagination. Very few persons would understand the causes of it. Most people would interpret it by their fears, and the consequences might be disastrous. The probability is that if Mr. Bryan should give the kind of order that Mr. Gage prefigures, he would be compelled by public opinion to rescind it the next day.

Gov. Roosevelt has given another characteristic illustration of the ease with which he can surrender his convictions upon the demand of "the organization." He knows that Odell has been, throughout his Governorship, the representative at Albany of the Platt machine, and as such the chief foe of the measures which he had most at heart; he knows that it was because the machine wanted its own representative in the Executive Chamber that it insisted upon pushing Roosevelt out of the Governorship by nominating him for Vice-President, and that Odell was an active agent in this scheme; he knows that a recognized machine man is most offensive to the independent voters of the State, and consequently that the nomination of Odell involves a risk of defeat which there is no excuse for running. For these reasons the Governor must have been at heart opposed to the nomination of Odell, and for a while he gave the impression that he was doing his duty in trying to prevent it. But the organization having triumphed, Roosevelt now comes out with a glowing eulogy of Odell and a declaration that he is "heartily for him," as a man who "will make an excellent Governor." Platt must take an infinite deal of satisfaction in the ease with which he converts the Rough Rider into a steady-going hack whenever the occasion arises.

It is not without interest, in connection with the proposed extradition of Neely to the Cuban authorities, to recall the views of Gen. Wood, now Military Governor of Cuba, concerning the expediency of subjecting American citizens to the jurisdiction of his "civil courts." They were expressed in a special report made last October, and are as follows:

> "Under the existing condition of things in Cuba no means are provided for the trial of . . . civilian employees of the military establishment, for offences not cognizable under the articles of war; *except the Cuban courts.* . . . I do not believe that it is wise or prudent or in any way desirable to subject American citizens, who are in the service of their own Government, to the jurisdiction and capricious decisions of tribunals composed of persons *alien in race and sentiment, administering a system of laws with which Americans are entirely unfamiliar, and which would not be tolerated in any American community.*"

It is worth while to remember, also, that when the extradition act was passed in order to subject American citizens to the jurisdiction described by Gen. Wood, the Judiciary Committee of the Senate proposed an amendment providing that before the Judge of a court of the United States should order the extradition of any one, he must be satisfied "that proper provision exists for securing to the accused a speedy and fair trial for such offence, where he will be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation, and be confronted with the witnesses against him, and have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and have the assistance of counsel for his defence." Congress rejected this amendment, and provided merely that the Cuban authorities should "guarantee" to the accused person a fair and impartial trial. These circumstances show how easy it is to lose Constitutional rights which have been gained by long and painful struggles.

A correspondent asks us to explain what is the present government of Porto Rico. It consists of a Governor appointed by the President of the United States, an Executive Council of eleven members, six of whom are appointed by the President of the United States and five elected by the people of Porto Rico, and a House of Delegates of thirty-five members elected by the people. All administrative offices are held by the members of the Executive Council, and all franchises, charters, and privileges are granted by the Council, with the approval of the Governor, but may be disapproved by the Congress of the United States. It appears, therefore, that the government of Porto Rico is really in the hands of the President of the United States, who appoints the Governor and a majority of the Executive Council. The persons composing the present Government of the island are both honest and capable. They would be better fitted for their task, indeed, if they could speak the language of the country they govern, but,

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aside from this, they are undoubtedly fit for their places. The only objection to them is that they do not represent the principles of self-government. When they were appointed, the President was under strong compulsion to make good selections.

The eyes of all Americans were then fixed upon Porto Rico as an orphan suffering bad treatment. Who is to answer for the next appointees? In whose hands will the appointing power be when the time comes for a change? In proportion as the public mind is turned away from Porto Rico and fixed on other things, so will politicians of the Rathbone and Neely type see their opportunity. The spur to good government will be withdrawn, and the danger of bad appointments increase. Who is to guarantee the application of civil-service reform to Porto Rico or the Philippines when political parties are clamoring for its abolishment at home? The more we contemplate Uncle Sam in the light of a guardian angel to foreigners, the more incongruous is the spectacle he presents and the more melancholy the prospect of his wards. The intentions of the people of the United States have nothing to do with the question. Government is not carried on by intentions, but by instruments. The question is not what your intentions are towards Porto Rico or any other colony, but who and what your instruments are and by what rule you select them.

It now appears certain that Sir Wilfrid Laurier's Liberal Ministry will go before the Canadian electors in October. The dissolution of the Liberal House of Commons nearly a year in advance of the natural term is virtually an appeal to the country for a vote of confidence. Already it is possible to trace the main issues of the impending campaign. The Liberals in Canada would be Conservatives in England, and so, conversely, the Canadian Conservatives would be Liberals in England. So far as any principle is at stake, it is conflict between the Imperial policy of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the Liberal leader, and the Canadian policy of Sir Charles Tupper, the Conservative leader. The issue is, however, by no means sharply drawn, for the Liberals must keep Imperialism in the background in French Canada, while the Conservatives must manage to be pro-Canadian without incurring the reproach of being Anti-Imperial. The Laurier Administration has been so essentially Opportunist—this quite naturally, when the complication of race and party interests in Canada is considered—that it is as difficult for the Opposition to deliver a decent frontal attack as it is for Mr. Campbell-Bannerman's forces to engage Lord Salisbury's at Westminster.

Accordingly we find the opposition conducted along many lines. The Conservatives charge Sir Wilfrid with giving Great Britain a substantial preferential in the customs without the *quid pro quo* which Canadians might and should have had at the English customs. Generally, they assert, in the past four years Canadian interests have been sacrificed to Imperial. Similarly, they allege that the Liberals have made valuable concessions to the United States, in admitting corn free particularly, without a return in kind. Other charges of maladministration abound. The Minister of the Interior is taxed with having administered the immigration laws with reprehensible laxness, and the Minister of Public Works with making shady contracts and carrying his anti-English utterances almost to disloyalty. Scandals in the building of highways and subsidizing of railroads are also alleged. The parties meet squarely at one point—the administration of Dominion finances. The Conservatives point to an increasing expenditure, from the $41,702,383 of the last Conservative Government to an estimated $53,050,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1900, and insist that this neither represents work done of a permanent character, nor the normal growth of Dominion needs, but the reckless extravagance of the Laurier Administration. This, it appears, is the immediate issue of the coming electoral campaign.

The attempt of Mr. Chamberlain to make a grave matter of some letters written by an Englishman to Boer correspondents and recently captured at Pretoria, seems to be a dismal failure. It is similar to the attempt made in this country to prove Senator Hoar and Mr. Atkinson guilty of treason because they opposed killing the Filipinos in the name of civilization and Christianity. Mr. Chamberlain injudiciously asked Mr. Labouchere if he had any explanation to offer of his letters, which were among those captured, to which that vivacious gentleman replied that he was responsible for his acts to the House of Commons, to his constituents, and to the law; and that to Mr. Chamberlain he owed no sort of explanation. He added that if explanations were to be offered, Mr. Chamberlain had an excellent opportunity to make some concerning his action in South Africa, which would receive due consideration. He ended by printing his own letter and forcing the Government to print the rest.

The renewed collapse of prices on the German stock markets this week is perhaps partly due to the apprehension of complications in China, but is probably caused in a great measure by the law against "time contracts." This law is essentially the same as the "anti-option" law proposed in this country by the Populists, which shows that Populism and despotism are very similar. During the civil war, when our Government had ruined its credit by emitting vast quantities of notes which it did not pay, gold became a speculative commodity, and often commanded a high premium in greenbacks. In order to repress the speculators, who were accused of making money out of the distress of their country, Congress passed an act prohibiting dealings in gold. The immediate result was that gold shot up to such a figure that Congress was compelled to repeal the act with precipitate haste. The German act was meant to prevent speculating in stocks on margins, and dealings in futures; and in order to accomplish that result, it put a premium on fraud and dishonesty. No one who bought "futures" was obliged to pay for them, and bankers who trusted to the honor of their clients were in some cases very heavy losers. Under such circumstances prices cannot be supported. If any one wishes to sell a quantity of stock, he may find that no one happens to have the cash to buy, and sales may have to be made for prices far below actual values. When speculation, as it is called, is not meddled with by Government, there are always many people on the lookout for bargains, and their competition keeps prices somewhere near their normal level. There seems to be no lack of productive and commercial activity in Germany, and the paternal benevolence of the Government is apparently the chief cause of the financial disturbances which it undertook to prevent by its meddlesome legislation.

Shortly after the death of Humbert, Queen Margherita composed a rosary, with prayers for her husband's soul, and presented it to the Bishop of Cremona for official sanction. This was kindly granted for the diocese in which the King died, and it is probable that thousands of pious Catholics prayed, in the Queen's words, that God would be gracious to the soul of the dead King. But the Pope intervened, and forbade the use of the prayer either in private devotions or in churches. Technically the Pope was right. Humbert, in the Church's eyes, was a usurper, who died in contumacy against the Pope's authority. It was unseemly, to ecclesiastical thinking, that his virtues or his memory should be celebrated in Roman Catholic churches, or even that his soul should receive any comfort from the mediatory offices of the Church. This may have been good religion; it was very bad politics. The discourtesy of the act has rallied public sentiment in Italy to the side of the widowed Queen and her son, and for the moment, in the long sullen fight between the Vatican and the Quirinal, the Vatican loses.

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MR. BRYAN AT TOPEKA.

Being forced to accept the nomination of the Populists, Mr. Bryan has been compelled to show that he agrees with them generally, that he stands on their platform, and that he is one of them in all respects except in name. This service he rendered in Topeka on Thursday, but he did so in very cautious terms. It was the first occasion on which he has been compelled to advocate any principles other than that of opposition to the Imperialist policy of Mr. McKinley, and it is evident that he would have been glad to be excused, since he gave one-half of his time to the discussion of Imperialism, and declared that he considered it the most important question now before the people.

The Populists have been known to us heretofore as the party which believes that the Government can make money out of nothing by merely putting its stamp on a piece of paper, and that its volume should be increased "to an amount sufficient to meet the demands of the business and population, and to restore the just level of prices of labor and production." As an incident and adjunct to that monetary system, the Populists demand the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1, but they do not consider the redemption of the Government's paper money in either silver or gold necessary or desirable. They think that the Government ought to own and operate all the railroad and telegraph lines, and that laws should be made by direct vote of the people, and that all public salaries should be made to correspond to the price of labor and its products. These are only a part of the vagaries which they hold, and which they expect Mr. Bryan to help them put in force if he is elected President of the United States.

Mr. Bryan does not say explicitly whether he concurs in the Populist doctrine that redemption of paper money in any kind of coin is necessary, or not, but he says that the Democratic party does not agree with that view, from which the inference must be drawn that he does not agree with it. What he says on this important point is embraced in the following paragraphs:

> "In 1896 the reform forces charged the Republican party with intending to retire the greenbacks. This charge, denied at the time, has been confessed by the Financial Bill, which converts greenbacks, when once redeemed, into gold certificates, and extends new privileges to banks of issue. If a Populist opposed the Republican party when its hostility to greenbacks was only suspected, that opposition should be greater now, since no one can longer doubt the purpose of the Republican party to substitute banknotes for greenbacks
>
> "It is true that the Populists believe in an irredeemable greenback, while the Democrats believe in a greenback redeemable in coin, but the vital question at this time, so far as paper money is concerned, is whether the Government or banks shall issue it. There will be time enough to discuss the redeemability of the greenback when the greenback itself is saved from the annihilation which now threatens it."

The charge here made against the Republican party of an intention to retire the greenbacks and to substitute banknotes for them is not true. We are among those who wish that it were true. The greenback is the one thing at the present time that blocks the road to a sound monetary system. It is the one thing that keeps the Government in the banking business, where it ought never to have been, and where it ought not to remain a day longer than necessary. That the Republicans are far from any thought of retiring and abolishing the greenbacks is proved by the fact that no such proposition was brought forward in either the House or the Senate at the last session, nor was that policy advocated by any Republican on either floor of Congress. Mr. Bryan did, however, make a point when he charged that "the Republican party is now committed to a currency system which necessitates a perpetual debt." This refers to the debt-refunding clause of the Currency Act, which substitutes bonds running thirty years in exchange for those which mature within eight years, and which might be paid off if the Government were so disposed.

Now let us see upon what points Mr. Bryan does agree with the Populists. In the first place, he agrees with them as to the free coinage of silver, although he buries this issue under as many words as possible. He says that

> "If an increase in the volume of the currency since 1896, although unpromised by the Republicans and unexpected, has brought improvement in industrial conditions, this improvement, instead of answering the arguments put forth in favor of bimetallism, only confirms the contention of those who insisted that more money would make better times."

And again:

> "If the Populists felt justified in opposing the Republican party when it sought to conceal its gold-standard tendencies under the mask of international bimetallism, the opposition should be more pronounced in proportion as the Republican party more openly espouses gold monometallism."

These oracular sayings must have puzzled his Populist hearers when they recalled the "cross of gold and crown of thorns," and the other stunning phrases of 1896. It is very plain that Mr. Bryan at Topeka sought to say just enough on this subject to hold the Populist vote, but not enough to offend the Gold Democrats.

On the other points of Populist doctrine, such as "government by injunction," direct legislation, the control of railroads and of Trusts, Mr. Bryan declared himself in general accord with the Populist platform; but in each case his language was guarded and qualified so as to give the least offence to conservative citizens. The speech was carefully prepared, and in a literary point of view was unexceptionable. The concluding portion, on the cost and meaning of standing armies, is very strong, and it is to be hoped that it made an impression on the Populist hearers, who have not hitherto given signs of much interest in Imperialism or much objection to war in the Philippines or elsewhere.

SENATOR HANNA ON PROSPERITY.

Senator Hanna's speech at Asbury Park on Tuesday evening of last week was delivered four or five years too late to have any important effect on national politics. At the time when Mr. Cleveland and Secretary Carlisle were struggling to ward off the consequences of the Republican legislation of 1890, and to preserve the gold standard, people were ready to believe that the financial disasters of the period were due to the Administration then in power. Since that time, however, the public have had leisure to examine the facts without passion or prejudice. The light of history has been thrown upon the financial crisis of 1893 and the subsequent years. The genesis of those troubles is now pretty well understood, and the facts are quite different from the picture drawn by Mr. Hanna in the following words:

> "I want to point out to you an object-lesson. Go back to the midst of the prosperity and happiness that prevailed in 1892. Then furnaces were blazing, spindles were spinning, business was hurrying us back and forth. You wanted a change and you got it. Well, what was it? I need not picture how fires went out in the furnaces, how spindles failed to spin, how unemployed men went hungry, how happiness disappeared, how bad went to worse. It was deplorable. Well, you wanted another change, and you got it. What a change! Furnaces are glowing, spindles are singing their song. Happiness came to us all with prosperity. Do you want another change to get back to '93-97? Of course you don't. Well, you must work to prevent it."

To understand the business situation in 1892 we must glance at that of the first Cleveland Administration, which began in 1885 and ended in 1889. It will be remembered as a period of good times—not a boom, but not hard, dragging times such as we have frequently seen since. One fact stands out with great clearness, and that is the surplus in the Treasury. Mr. Fairchild was then the Secretary, and he was all the time at his wit's end to dispose of the money coming in, so that the loan market might not be cramped by the intake of the Treasury. The purchase of bonds had been so rapid that the price of the 4s had been run up to nearly 130, which was quite unprecedented at that time. The Secretary had deposited about $80,000,000 in national banks, and this fact was made use of by Mr. Blaine as the basis of a charge of favoritism to particular banks, which was as groundless as the similar charge preferred against Secretary Gage a few months ago.

The central fact of the financial situation during the past twenty years has been the redeemability of the Government's legal-tender notes in gold. Everything has depended upon this. Private solvency has hinged upon Government

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solvency, as it does to-day. The prosperity of every man's business has been conditioned on the Government's ability to meet the daily drafts upon it, of which the redemption of its demand notes was the most important of all. The surplus for the single year 1888 reached the enormous sum of $119,000,000, and the redemptions of the public debt during the four years of Mr. Cleveland's first term were $235,000,000 in excess of the annual sinking fund, which was nearly as much more.

The Republicans came into power in 1889, and soon made havoc of the surplus. Two bills were immediately introduced having this object in view, and a third was brought forward later. One of these was the McKinley Tariff. It contained a clause repealing the duties on sugar, which struck out $55,900,000 of revenue at one blow—that is, about one-half of the annual surplus. The second was a new pension bill, which eventually added $50,000,000 to the expenditures, and which led Corporal Tanner, who was then Commissioner of Pensions, to exclaim, "God help the surplus." The third bill, which came later, was the Sherman Silver Act, the worst of the three in its effects upon private business and upon the Treasury as well.

The Bland-Allison Silver Bill had been in operation since February, 1878, calling for an expenditure of about $25,000,000 per year for silver bullion to be coined into silver dollars—a species of fiat money which was kept at par by a roundabout process of redemption. The Government which paid them out took them back at the custom-house and the tax office, so that anybody could realize par for them by paying them to the Government. Obviously this condition could last only as long as the amount outstanding was no larger than the Government could take in for taxes. The public understood the situation perfectly.

The Sherman Silver Act proposed to increase the purchases of silver bullion from $2,000,000 worth per month to 4,500,000 ounces per month, and to issue a new kind of fiat money on it—a kind that did not need to be coined, and could, therefore, be put out faster than silver dollars. This law was passed in July, 1890. It added to the public expenses about $50,000,000 per year, and not only ran the Treasury in debt for current expenses, but created an apprehension in the public mind that we were within measurable distance of a suspension of gold payments.

The Treasury surplus began to grow less until it disappeared altogether. The gold reserve began to shrink. Secretary Foster, in the latter part of 1892, began to talk about issuing bonds to replenish the reserve, and actually gave an order for the preparation of plates for printing the bonds. Mr. Dolliver of Iowa, the same who has just been appointed Senator from Iowa, was interviewed on the financial situation about the middle of January, 1893, to the following purport:

"The Treasury is in no *present* danger. It will pay gold on demand for every piece of silver or paper outstanding as long as we [the Republicans] are in power. To be sure, the percentage of gold on hand is not as great as it has been, but it is sufficient. The people won't call for it; the paper currency is good enough for them. *What may happen after the 4th of March is not our affair.* There is no reason why we should go out of our way to help the Democrats. Let each party look out for its own troubles. That is my present view. However, I reserve the right to change it later."

Mr. Dolliver's diagnosis of the situation, both political and financial, in the middle of January, 1893, was correct. It was also frank. It was an acknowledgment that if a panic was approaching, it would not be the work of the incoming Administration, although the latter would have to bear the burden of it. The panic came a few months later. It was caused by the three profligate and disastrous measures enacted by a Republican Congress here enumerated; and now Senator Hanna has the effrontery to point back to the hard times of 1893-97 as though they had been caused by the Administration which suffered from them.

THE NEELY CASE.

Charles F. W. Neely was, until recently, an American citizen enjoying an apparently deserved obscurity. Such reputation as he had was none of the best, and his achievements in Cuba have not been of a description to bring honor either to himself or to his country. So far as he is personally concerned, his countrymen would regard his departure to Cuba, or to any country outside the United States, and his incarceration there, with great complacency. Mr. Neely, however, is likely to find himself in the category of those who have greatness thrust upon them. Judge Wallace ruefully observes that he has had to travel 300 miles, at considerable inconvenience, in order to accord him his rights. His case will occupy a prominent place hereafter in the annals of our jurisprudence, and his name will be often on the lips of lawyers, of judges, and of statesmen. The reasons for this are perhaps not clearly understood by the public; but they are obviously of sufficient importance to make it desirable that they should be known. This is abundantly established by the fact that in Neely's petition for a writ of habeas corpus his attorney has sworn that he is informed (and believes) that the United States Government authorities have made arrangements for the placing of the petitioner on board a vessel for immediate transportation to Cuba as soon as possible after an order for extradition has been made, under such circumstances as will prevent, and are intended to prevent, the petitioner from applying then for a writ of habeas corpus. If this allegation is established, the guilt or the punishment of Neely becomes insignificant; the rights of every American citizen are the real matter at issue.

Stated as concisely as possible, the facts in the case are as follows: Neely, who stands accused of stealing from one of the departments of the anomalous government now existing in Cuba in which he was employed, came to the United States. He was arrested and imprisoned in the Ludlow Street jail in New York, in an action which could probably not be sustained. In order to insure his punishment, Congress on June 6, 1900, passed an act providing for his extradition to the Cuban authorities. On June 27, on two complaints of the United States Attorney under this statute, Circuit Judge Lacombe issued two warrants for Neely's arrest. The United States Marshal took him into custody, exhibiting the warrants as his authority, and on June 29 brought him before Judge Lacombe, when the United States Attorney demanded his extradition under the complaints. The proceedings were adjourned, and on July 24 Judge Lacombe endorsed on the warrants the words "Remanded till decision," under his signature and official title.

Thereafter Judge Lacombe filed an opinion to the effect that Neely should be held for extradition, and stating that he would sign an order so soon as the other proceedings were discontinued. Neely's petition for habeas corpus recited these facts, and by no other proceeding could he have obtained a review of Judge Lacombe's decision. Judge Lacombe suggested that the petition be presented to some other judge than himself, and it was presented to Judge Wallace on August 9. He denied the petition, but allowed an appeal, and made an order directing the marshal to hold Neely in custody pending the appeal. He has now denied a motion to vacate this order, based on the theory that Neely was not in the custody of the marshal when the writ of habeas corpus was applied for. In support of this theory, the marshal made what can hardly be characterized otherwise than as an incorrect return, by endorsing on the warrants, on August 13, a certificate that he had not detained Neely by virtue of the warrants. Judge Lacombe says that he made no order committing Neely under the statute; but he endorsed the warrants as above set forth. As Judge Wallace says, unless Neely was actually or constructively in custody under those warrants, Judge Lacombe had no authority to entertain the proceedings. "Until the warrants were issued and served, the whole proceeding was in the air, and notwithstanding the prisoner may have been held and the witnesses were examined, all that took place was a solemn farce." If he was present merely because the marshal brought him there under process in some other proceedings, Judge Wallace

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continues, Judge Lacombe "was merely holding a moot court, and his pronouncement would have had no more effect as a legal decision than if it had been made by the United States Attorney, or even by a bootblack upon the corner of the street." Neely must have been in custody in the extradition proceeding, because that was the very foundation of the jurisdiction of the judge to hear and determine the case. The theory that a person may be tried on a criminal charge without being arrested may prevail in France, but it has no place in our jurisprudence.

Judge Wallace, it is to be observed, holds the extradition statute Constitutional; but that question remains to be decided. The rights involved are of transcendent importance, and are similar to those defended by the Supreme Court in the Milligan case in 1865. Milligan was a more odious person than Neely, and was very likely guilty of treason; but the court did not allow its detestation of his character or his offence to affect its judgment. Milligan was tried by a military commission in Indiana, a State where the civil government was in undisturbed operation, and was sentenced to be hanged. He was not in the military or naval service of the United States, and had not resided in any of the States in rebellion, but had been a citizen of Indiana for twenty years. The Supreme Court granted a writ of habeas corpus, saying that it was the birthright of every American citizen, when charged with crime, to be tried and punished according to law. He can be held to answer for an infamous crime only on presentment by a grand jury; he can be tried only by jury; he must be informed of the accusation and be confronted by the witnesses against him; he must have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and have the aid of counsel for his defence. The Supreme Court held, in an opinion which might well be studied in these days of peril to the Constitution, that an American citizen could not be tried by a military commission, deriving its authority from the President as Commander-in-Chief of the army, and sitting in a peaceful community on the assumption that it is the theatre of active military operations.

Neely is not in the military or naval service of the United States. Peace prevails in Cuba. Yet the whole government of Cuba is military, and its Military Governor is its supreme executive, legislative, and judicial authority. He has ordained a code of laws, and he can repeal it to-morrow. He has set up what are called "civil" courts, and by his fiat he can terminate their existence to-day. These courts are not constituted by the people of Cuba—that "free and independent" people recognized by Congress more than two years ago. They do not derive their authority from Spain or from our Congress. They are military courts, no matter what they are called.

A subordinate officer in our army in Cuba is now authorized to call upon his Commander-in-Chief to seize American citizens and send them to be tried and punished in Cuba by this subordinate officer at his discretion. Our army is occupying a friendly foreign country, whose freedom and independence we have recognized, where profound peace prevails, but where no civil government exists because the assertion of our military power forbids. This power is usurping the sovereignty of the Cuban people; it has no justification under the Constitution of the United States; it makes no pretence of respecting the Constitutional provisions for the rights of American citizens; and yet it is proposed to send American citizens to Cuba to be disposed of according to the arbitrary direction of an officer of the army who exercises this despotic and anomalous jurisdiction. We can imagine no better illustration than this of the real tendencies of Imperialism; and when the evidence is presented showing the arrangements planned by our military authorities for hurrying Neely off to Cuba the moment that an order for his extradition was signed, the American people may begin to feel that the danger to which they are exposed is not exaggerated.

THE HUNTING OF THE TRUST.

The intense hostility to Trusts manifested in all our party platforms, and displayed by all our politicians, has not yet put an end to these monsters. On the contrary, they appear to flourish like the green bay tree, and to multiply like the seed of Abraham. In this part of the country, and perhaps in some others, the wiles of these insidious "combines" have been too much even for some of the guardians of the public. A French Deputy was once describing to his constituents the demoralizing influences which affected the Chamber, and exclaimed: "In fact, so intense and all-pervading was the corruption which prevailed that even I, who address you, did not altogether escape contamination." Such appears to be the plight of a number of our leading local statesmen. Any ordinary temptation to dishonesty, any moderate inducement to blackmail, any small bribe, their virtue might be sufficient to resist. But when our vast modern aggregations of capital descend on our legislators like Zeus upon Danaë, they are irresistible. The average politician does not lay claim to superhuman integrity; but, to do him justice, in the very moment of yielding he cries out against the wickedness of the tempter. Satan may get him; but as he is carried off, he will kick, and denounce the methods of the evil one.

There is some reason to believe that the condition of affairs in the State of Texas is somewhat better than this. The hostility to Trusts there appears to be unusually stern and uncompromising. At all events the Texas Legislature passed a law against Trusts which has actually proved to be Constitutional, and which looks extremely drastic. In fact, it is difficult to see how any business can be transacted without violating this statute, and of course the Trusts are comprehended under these broad provisions against agreements of sale of all kinds. At all events, an oil company, said to be controlled by the arch-demon, the Standard Oil Trust, was caught red-handed, selling oil in Texas, and, in spite of its protests and denials and squirmings, the penalty of the statute was applied. The criminal corporation, which drew its guilty life from the State of Missouri, and was doing business in Texas under a license, had its license revoked, and was perpetually enjoined from continuing its nefarious transactions in that State. The struggles of the octopus were desperate. Every court in Texas was resorted to, and at last the Supreme Court of the United States was reached. It was all in vain. A Texas ex-Judge, named McFall, says that the wicked corporation laughed a laugh of defiance at Texas when it reached that haven of foreign corporations, the Federal Court; but it did not laugh long, for the Supreme Court decided against its appeal. The majesty of the law was sustained; the triumph of the State of Texas was complete.

Alas, that triumph was of short duration. The fair fruits of victory turned to ashes in the mouths of the representatives of the State. About five minutes after the license of the criminal corporation had been revoked, and it had been thrust from the State with the mark of Cain branded on its brow, another corporation, having the same name, hailing from the same jurisdiction, having some of the same members, and having purchased all the property of the ejected corporation, applied for a license to do business in the State of Texas, and got it. We need not say that this outrageous and entirely legal proceeding aroused the most furious indignation among the Anti-Trust politicians. Judge McFall voices their wrath. His sincerity cannot be doubted, since he has tendered his services to the Governor, free of charge, in the work of vindicating the law. He intimates that some of the officials of the State had "negotiated" with the attorney of the oil company, and there are suggestions of the use of champagne and cigars on a private car. Impartial justice compels us to say that the said attorney denies the champagne and private-car charge, and pleads that if any cigars were employed, they were of the three-for-a-quarter kind. In this jurisdiction such a plea would of course establish a

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complete defence. Our courts would take judicial cognizance of the results of offering any politician of influence cigars of that description, and would at once give judgment for the defendant. Whatever opinion they might entertain of the wisdom of an attorney against whom such charges were brought, they would instantly acquit him of all suspicion of the guilt of embracery. But it is quite possible that different standards prevail in Texas, and Judge McFall is no doubt justified in inquiring into the cigar episode with the utmost thoroughness.

Leaving that matter aside, Judge McFall tackles the main problem with vigor. He impressively observes that laws are enacted with the expectation that they are to be enforced, and that those who break them will be punished, "otherwise it were mere mockery and waste of time to enact them," and very justly adds that in this case the Anti-Trust Law does not appear to have been vindicated in the slightest degree. With equal propriety he remarks that "we, as Democrats," have no right to accuse the Republicans of insincerity in their attitude towards Trusts, when the most drastic laws that Texas can frame prove a delusion and a snare. The conclusions appear to us irresistible, and are so eloquently urged as to deserve to be given in Judge McFall's own words: "What standing has the Democracy before the people when her greatest statesmen condemn in matchless oratory on stump and in forum the doings of the Trust, and appear, as soon as one is caught and convicted, as special champions to stay the just judgment of the courts?" We fear that unscrupulous Republicans may pervert this utterance for campaign purposes; but we cannot help it. The truth must be told. *Fiat justitia, ruat cœlum.*

The attorney for the oil company shows the cold callousness to be expected in one occupying his position. Instead of eloquence, he confines himself to law, and resorts to common sense instead of political appeals. He asks some pertinent questions, which may well be considered by all sincere Trust-hunters. Does a judgment of forfeiture against a foreign corporation prevent its stockholders from abandoning it and organizing a new one? Does it prevent some of them from purchasing the shares of the others, and from purchasing the property of the defunct corporation? Does it prevent entire strangers from organizing a corporation to transact the same business as the defunct company? Does it destroy the property of the old corporation? Cannot this property be sold? If sold, must not some one buy it? If these transactions are legitimate, "why insist that the devil shall be whipped around the stump, unless our purpose is to deceive the unthinking and the ignorant?". The answer to the last question is given by the propounder of it—"We must not begrudge our politicians the privilege of utilizing to the fullest extent the advantages to be derived from stentorian denunciation."

ON TRANSLATING THE 'ARABIAN NIGHTS.'—I.

The first Englishing of 'The Nights' was at the hands of unknown denizens of Grub Street early in the eighteenth century. They pitchforked into Gallic English the French paraphrase of Galland (1704-1717), a *grand traducteur* of the school of Chaucer. The first appearance in English literature, properly so called, was made when Addison retold the story of Alnashar in the *Spectator* (November 13, 1712). Yet the vitality of the Grub Street version, due to the good blood from which it sprang, has been great. It is the parent of the numberless "new and complete editions," "new translations from the Arabic," "careful revisions after the original," which form the stock 'Arabian Nights' to our own day, and which should make up a weighty chapter in the history of the great publishing humbug. The next essays were made, at Simla and at Cairo, direct from Arabic texts. Henry Torrens, Irishman, novelist, poet, the most brilliant figure in a brilliant Indian circle, had felt the glamour and recognized the problem. The single volume which he published in 1838 falls nearer the mark than any other English attempt. It is often inaccurate; it is often free in its turning of the verses; it is not complete. But it is full of the atmosphere of the East; the meadows that shore its seas are bathed in magic light; its figures wander in gardens of enchantment, by the spray of fountains of mystery; the casements of its palaces open

"o'er the foam
Of perilous seas, in faery lands forlorn."

Torrens's prose is almost word for word, and in that is its charm; the simple style of the prose of 'The Nights,' flexible in its simplicity, renders itself; attempts to enrich its vocabulary, to correct its dishevelled order, to bring picturesqueness into its monotonous syntax, and to find epigrams under its common words, only result in imitations of the 'Decameron' or the 'Mabinogion' in a style bewitched with preciousness and conceits. And the quality of its verse, too, has been rightly recognized. All Arab poetry is lyric; dramatic lyric, it may be, of Browning's fashion, but always sung or chanted. It is unthinkable without the living voice to render it, and the living situation from which it springs or which brings it again to mind. An occasion is demanded for it, and it amply fulfils Goethe's canon that the only true poem is the *Gelegenheitsgedicht.* And, further, the poetry of 'The Nights' is, in great part, current coin, running easily from the tongue, held in the memories of all; the same scraps recur again and again, and show their common use. All besides is improvisation, marked with the fluent shallows and fiery nothings of its kind. Between the two we move from classical lines with the dignity of the finest Shaksperian blank verse to rattling drinking-songs struck out with the flash of the moment; from wishywashy love poetry, sung with a die-away grace, to expressions of the noblest religious resignation and trust outside of the Psalms. But all is sung and singable; it swings and rolls in lyric lines of unfailing rhythm. And so, too, it is rendered by Torrens. He did not attempt an exact reproduction of either the thought or the form. That *ignis fatuus* of learned translators, the attempt to naturalize in English essentially foreign metres and rhyme movements, did not lead him its weary dance over the quaking bogs of verbal artifice and jolting rhythms which it haunts. He simply cast his verses in that English form which suited their content, and was justified by the result. His songs sing themselves; his quotations cling. We do not wonder at the memories of their users; we see how the tags of verse must have been light upon the lips. Here and there Burton has used Torrens's translations when a piece of verse was repeated, and the weary journeyers through his version will remember such scraps as veritable oases in the desert. In both these points, then—the verbatim prose, the free verse—Torrens showed that literary instinct and feeling which is more necessary even than scholarship to the successful translator.

If this version had been completed, Mr. Payne has confessed that he would not have attempted his own. But the strange fate that has pursued the original text of 'The Nights' clings fast to its translations and translators. No one can read it through without dying, is the story. It brings bad luck, and this is by some mystery, not by length or folly; for there are tales in Arabic far longer and yet more foolish to the Muslim mind. Yet of all the unluckinesses the worst has been that the appearance of part of Lane's translation (1839-1842) stopped Torrens at the close of the first fifty Nights. Lane, even at that time, was a far better Arabist than Torrens. *He* had been only a very clever man with a linguistic talent; he had picked up some Arabic as he had picked up a dozen other languages. Lane was a scholar and a student. He found the stories of 'The Nights' delightful, but no mere delight in the stories would have moved him to pass them on to others. The value which he set on his translation was the light which it, joined to the elaborate commentary with which he equipped it, shed on the life, the manners and the customs of the mediæval Arabs. In this he was undoubtedly right. No student of the Muslim East can afford to be without it, and a student may read it again and again and learn from it every time. But that is all. It never can be a treasure-house of pleasant things, a great three-decker "to carry tired people to the Islands of the Blest." And the ground is not far to seek. Lane's forte was description; what he saw he could describe so that any one else could see it. But he had no trace of imagination; allusion that produces illusion he knew nothing of. And, further, he had worked out for himself a solid semi-Biblical style that had many points of advantage. It carries with it a certain weight of Eastern truth, but it makes the figures move too like Old Testament patriarchs and prophets, and too little like the lively and often most graceless set that they were. There are men in 'The Nights,' it is true, that might have stalked through Genesis or Samuel, but the prevailing dignity of Lane's prose ill consorts with the out-at-elbows, slouching fashion of most of his original. It is written in no classical forms—except in scraps here and there, where the story-teller very con-

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sciously strives to climb the hoights of foine language; it is only a fixing in letter and line of the current *lingua franca* of mediæval Arabic. Lane's failing to see and render this makes him, as Leigh Hunt said, "resemble an Arab full dressed, compared with the lighter half-apparel of Mr. Torrens." And the Arab of 'The Nights' is in "half-apparel" throughout. But it is still worse with the rendering of the verse. That is in prose, too, and it of the flattest; accurate in a verbal way, but infinitely misleading as to use and spirit. Put a song of Béranger or Burns into English or French prose of the market-place, and even then the parallel is not complete. For Béranger and Burns are often read, and those verses were always sung to lute or viol.

The next to enter the lists was Mr. John Payne. His version (1882-1884) is absolutely complete, and is thus in a different class from any that preceded. He served himself heir on Torrens; his object was to do what Torrens had left only begun, and to do it, if more completely, yet with Torrens's aims. At his hands 'The Nights' again became a story-book after their perversion to sociology at the hands of Lane. But the pity is that it is a story-book of mediæval Europe, and not of the mediæval East. It may be that Western chivalry sprang from Antar and his fellow-knights of the desert, but there is a great gulf fixed between the 'Morte d'Arthur' and any Eastern romance. It may be, too, that the Italian novelists, from Straparola down, drew upon Arab tales that came in the wake of the Saracen army of Frederick II., the great Hohenstaufen; even that Ariosto and Boccaccio knew 'The Nights' with their plan. But there is little in 'The Nights' that would not need much change to stand without jar in the 'Decameron,' and almost nothing that could be taken over straight into the 'Orlando.' Mr. Payne deserves all credit for the return which he made to the literary starting-point. But a student of early French poetry and a translator of Villon is sorely handicapped in approaching 'The Nights.' Perhaps a longer acquaintance with Arabic and the Muslim East would have brought riper appreciation of the atmosphere and style of his original, but the fact remains that it is rendered much as he later rendered Boccaccio, that his three Ladies of Bagdad sing to the Rabelaisian Porter much as Fiametta and Filomena sang to their languid company in the Italian garden. Mr. Payne's 'Nights' "suffer a sea-change into something rich and strange," but the richness and strangeness of Wardour Street furniture and of mediæval tapestries go ill with the simplicity and directness of popular Arab speech. Even the pure love-tale of 'The Nights' is not told in the cumbrous style of Boccaccio. The pathos touches more directly; the sentiment is truer and less involved; Chaucer could have rendered it better than any Italian. And when all is made over in similar picturesque fashion—the crudest folk-tales, told without art in a chimney-corner, as homely as in Grimm and to be retold only in Grimm's language, beast-fables that none could retell aright except him who has already retold the stories of Brer Rabbit, other folk-tales, again, which have been wrought with the deftest skill into long creations of genius—all we can say is that it is a very pretty story-book, but it is not 'The Arabian Nights.'

The next adventurer, and in quick succession, was Sir Richard Burton. He knew 'The Nights,' after his erratic fashion, as no other European ever did. Oriental life, above and below the surface—a distinction which does not exist for the East—he knew throughout. He recognized, too, the precise nature of the charm which went with Galland's version and the Englishings which followed him, and how that differed from the tone of the original.

"The immortal fragment," he says, "will never be superseded in the infallible judgment of childhood." "Those who look only at Galland's picture, his effort to 'transplant into European gardens the magic flowers of Eastern fancy,' still compare his tales with the sudden prospect of magnificent mountains seen after a long desert march; they arouse strange longings and indescribable desires; their marvellous imaginativeness produces an insensible brightening of mind and an increase of fancy-power, making one dream that behind them lies the new and unseen, the strange and unexpected—in fact, all the glamour of the unknown."

The thing could hardly be better put. That he recognized, too, the weakness of Mr. Payne is evident to every one who can read between the lines of his references to his immediate predecessor. The style of 'The Nights,' the prose and the verse in all their phases, he understood. The whole problem of the translator lay bare to him. Perhaps he regarded it as insoluble; perhaps he thought that Mr. Payne had made the nearest approach possible to a solution. At any rate, he turned with all deliberation and gave himself to anthropology as Lane had done to manners and customs. His great work (1886-1888)—for it is truly great—is a clue to 'The Nights' and to the life therein for the Arabist who can weigh Burton's judgments and reject his eccentricities. To the English reader it gives no true idea of the original, and nothing could be further from being an English classic. No one will ever delight in it; many will study it. Perversities of style make it unreadable for its own sake. Such phrases as "a red cent," "belle and beldame," "a veritable beauty of a man," "O, my cuss," "thy hubby," "a Charley," may possibly have Arabic equivalents, but certainly cannot render those for us. No illusion can survive such barbarisms. The long, lumbering lope of its verses, too, is only a degree better than Lane's prose. Its futilities of annotation are a perpetual menace. The fate of the Household Edition brings all to a point: when deprived of unpublishable matter and relying solely on its English value, the book was a flat failure.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—VIII.

IN GENERAL.

PARIS, August, 1900.

The Paris Exposition is now, but only now, fairly complete, and one can take stock of the items of success and failure. To an American the only standard by which comparison can be made is, of course, Chicago, and I think the universal verdict is that the effect produced by the nondescript, bizarre style of the Paris buildings, though it is most artistically aided by the use of color, kept well under control, and not allowed to run riot as in the Transportation building at Chicago, is far less imposing and even pleasing than the strictly classical models followed in the group of buildings which surrounded the Court of Honor. The two permanent buildings (to be used, as was the old Palais d'Industrie, which they replace, for the annual Salon and such purposes), are imposing structures, and the court between them forms an appropriate vestibule to the magnificent view of the superb new Pont Alexandre III., and the Avenue des Invalides beyond. But nothing more hideous in color and design than the trumpery temporary Porte Monumentale, which introduces the visitor to the grounds from the Place de la Concorde, was ever conceived. The most pleasing view is that obtained by looking from the Pont Alexandre III. down the Seine, whose left bank is lined for half a mile by the national buildings, rising from a noble and spacious platform, and whose right bank supports the picturesque houses of Old Paris, which so rivet the attention that the eye passes heedlessly over the large, almost too severely plain, building which contains the interesting exhibit of the municipality of New Paris, and the greenhouses for the horticultural display.

Another feature which mars the architectural effect of the more imposing buildings is the confusion created by the intermingling of side-shows with the serious Exposition. The most glaring instance is an ugly yellow shed erected just as you cross the Pont Alexandre III., and which blocks the entrance to the Faïence department of the great Industrial building. Its walls are plastered over with invitations to enter and see within the posturing of Oriental dancing girls. The great space accorded to accessories of this kind was probably determined by financial considerations; but the Exposition proper is so large, and covers necessarily a space so much greater than human strength can possibly compass during the short stay of an average visitor, that it seems to be unwise to distract his attention and use up his energies by forcing him to wander through a labyrinth of side-shows. Some of these are, however, as worthy of visiting as anything within the exhibit walls of the Exposition buildings. Félix's groups of historical figures in contemporary costumes, representative of every period of French history, each group dressed as correctly as the most accurate research enabled eminent students to design, is worthy of being perpetuated. The extraordinary illusion produced by the fleeting scenery of the Trans-Siberian Railroad, as you sit in one of the sumptuous cars of that world-encircling road, is a novelty in panoramic effects. The gorgeous reproduction of one of the rock-hewn temples of Cambodia is a monument that ought to be made of something more durable than plaster. These and others of the accessories really add greatly and appropriately to the educational interest of the Exposition; but they are so buried in a multitude of worthless, money-making, and sometimes highly objectionable concessions that the weary sightseer is likely to overlook them.

As to the Exposition itself, in some departments it is beyond comparison the best ever got together. The industries of neither this country nor England are, in any group, adequately represented, unless it be in the Department of Electricity, where our large companies make a conspicuous demonstration, not only of their machinery, but of its adaptability. The electric railroad and

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the moving platform—one of the most blessed novelties to the weary pedestrian—are from the workshop of the Westinghouse Company. But France preëminently, then Russia and Germany, and in fact all the nations of northern and central Europe except England, make splendid and most costly demonstrations of what they are achieving in the field of metallurgy, mechanics, the manufacture of textile fabrics, ceramics, and jewelry. The Exposition is built primarily for the glory of France as unmistakably as Chicago's Fair was conceived and executed for the glory of the United States, and therefore, as might be expected, the French exhibits are, in almost every department, the largest and the best. The display of silks and delicate tissues, whether in the piece or made into artistic ladies' clothing, is one which the most uninitiated layman can but look at with awe and admiration. The French metallurgists have also exhibited in their stupendous trophies not only the wonderful feats they can perform out of metal, but the art with which they can exhibit their handiwork, though in this last respect the Swedish exhibitors perhaps rival them. In ceramics Europe shows no advance. Perhaps the most noteworthy exhibit in the whole show is that of our Rookwood potteries. War is painfully *en évidence*. The Krupp Works make no important display of their metal work, intended for peace or war; but Maxim has a pavilion to himself, and the great Schneider Works justify the fame their guns have brought them through the Boer War, by the display they make of weapons of destruction under the huge iron turret which towers above all neighboring buildings.

Nothing can be more attractively displayed than the exhibits in the Agricultural Department, where a prominent and novel feature of the Exposition is beautifully carried out, though necessarily on too large a scale for permanent preservation; namely, the Historical Museum of the past century's progress in agriculture. In each and every section there is a similar collection, intended to illustrate the development of each branch of science and art during the century just closed. These collections of the century's workmanship in metals, furniture, embroidery, etc., do not always show improvement and progress in the resulting products, however much advance the last-made articles may exhibit in cheapness and rapidity of manufacture over the first; but as fields for study they are so important that it is to be hoped they will be, as far as possible, assembled into a permanent collection, when the Exhibition closes. There is room for most of these in the sumptuous building opposite the French Art Gallery, the Petit Palais, where are now shown the finest examples obtainable of the masterpieces of ornamental art work, as expressed above all in Church ornaments and vestments from the earliest times of Gallic civilization till to-day. One difficulty, and perhaps an insuperable one, in the way of securing and combining these scattered groups of historical objects, lies in the fact that they are composed in great measure of treasured articles lent by private collectors. But the same generosity which impelled the owners to lend them for a season might, seeing how their liberality has been appreciated, tempt them to extend the benefit. In truth, some such memorial and perpetual residuum of these immense agglomerations of beautiful and instructive objects is the only way of obtaining any adequate compensation for the enormous thought and energy expended on their collection and arrangement. Very few of the millions of footsore and exhausted wretches who, in a mental state of semi-consciousness, drag their weary limbs through miles and miles of galleries, in which such a variety of objects are passed in such rapid succession that each succeeding effort of mind obliterates the memory of the preceding observation, carry away anything but the vaguest impression of what they have seen.

But if from these stupendous piles of material there could be selected a typical collection of the objects which would illustrate the perfection reached by each art, and the steps by which it was attained, or the retrogressive stages which mark its decay, and these objects were preserved for study in quietness and ease for all time, the intrinsic value of these overgrown expositions would be enormously enhanced. Had such collections been made from all the great world's fairs since that of 1851, there would be available for the student and manufacturer a series of standards of comparison which would be of inestimable value. We attempted to do it in the Armour Museum after the Chicago Fair, but in an unsystematic fashion and with somewhat incongruous results.

Turning from the Exhibition to the greater exhibition in which it is set, Paris itself, the city never looked more beautiful, and never succeeded better in courteously treating its guests—at least, that was my experience, and the experience of almost all whom we met. Englishmen and Americans who were delegates to the several Congresses were accorded fully, if not more than, their share of honor, and every class of the people, from railroad porters to cab drivers, seemed to vie with each other in civility. Of course, as is right and to be expected, every one is endeavoring to make all he can legitimately, and some are probably trespassing beyond the bounds of reason and propriety in taking advantage of this rare opportunity of filling their pockets; but the charge of universal extortion is as unjust as that of universal incivility. The more popular hotels have raised their rates for rooms about 50 per cent., but the restaurant rates are not much above normal. The cab drivers are grateful for a *pourboire* of 10 sous instead of 5 sous—not a serious tax on any one's resources; and gratuities generally should be increased if a kindly farewell is to be expected on parting; but all who yield to these legitimate excesses, and who invite civility by according civility, will have no grounds for complaint. Moreover, any slight overcharge outside the Exposition grounds is compensated for by the low rate of admission. No money is taken at the gates, but tickets are sold by hawkers on the streets, in stores, and everywhere. And day by day the syndicate which controls the sale fixes the price of a one-franc admission ticket. It sold down occasionally to 20 centimes or 4 cents, but some days rose to 45 centimes (9 cents). Even if, therefore, there are 150,000 admissions, the gate money does not amount to a very large sum. On fête nights, and to visit the Friday illuminations, those who enter after six o'clock are usually charged four admission tickets. The Exposition 20-franc bonds, which cover not only the vague chances of profits, but twenty admission tickets, a share in a lottery, and a right to a discount of 25 per cent. in the price of admission to many of the side-shows, are selling at from 10 to 15 francs. The Exposition is therefore not likely to be a financial success, and consequently the universal good humor is the more to be commended.

JAMES DOUGLAS.

Correspondence.

THE MUSIC HALL AND THE BOER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The burghers of the South African Republics have been treated throughout the war as regular belligerents, a character to which they had an unquestionable claim, the Transvaal having been designated in the indictment of the Jameson Raiders as a foreign state, and they having observed the laws and humanities of war. But now, because they hold out as guerrillas when they have been overwhelmed rather than conquered in the field, the edict goes forth from the Imperial Music Halls that they shall be treated not as belligerents, but as rebels, and shot when they are taken; while their farms are to be burned and the women and children turned out to perish. This is exactly what Maximilian, or rather Bazaine, did in Mexico. In that case American opinion was not doubtful.

It is manifest that the Boers would have laid down their arms before this had they been treated as honorable enemies. But Mr. Chamberlain would have nothing but abject and unconditional submission. It is a pity that there cannot be infused into the statesmanship of the man who has the character of the country in his hands, something of the sentiment of an English gentleman.

EQUITY.

August 22, 1900.

THE STATE OF ITALY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The death of King Humbert is too freshly in our minds for one to say what historical truth demands, and he was such a sympathetic figure personally, so sincerely devoted to his people and in many ways so noble an example to the rulers of Europe, that it is difficult for me, who lived in Italy most of the time of his reign, knew him personally, and always received such courteous recognition as an honest friend of Italy, to express my honest convictions concerning him. But I cannot allow the *Nation* to commit itself (No. 1831) to the prevalent error, that his death is, politically, "loss to Italy." When my hands are freer from the pressing engagements now holding me, and the period of mourning for the man has passed, I shall, I hope, be able to do justice at once to him and to Italy; but I must now say that, in his mistaken conception of his duty to the Crown and his people at large, he has done more than any other man or combination of men in Italy to open the way to the legislative anarchy which exists and the social anarchy which is preparing.

One of the wisest and most patriotic Italian statesmen I know, whose participation

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in public affairs began before the kingdom of Italy, said to me in the last year of my residence in Rome, that the only hope of the endurance of the monarchy was in the abdication of the King; and this was true. To make it clear and to do justice to Italy without injustice to the late King as man, citizen, and gentleman, would be impossible for me at the moment; but the fact is that the progress of political demoralization in Italy has been largely due to the fact that Humbert never insisted on maintaining the conservative prerogatives of the Crown, but paid the same deference to a disorderly demonstration of the subversive minority that he did to the deliberately expressed will of the constitutional majority of the nation. I do not believe that the kingdom of Italy, as now constituted, could have resisted ten years more of his reign, which was in every sense the antithesis of that of his father.

But in more than this you are mistaken. "The oppressive burthen of the Triple Alliance" is a phrase absolutely without sense. The Triple Alliance saves the country fifty million francs a year, and has permitted a reduction of the standing army by a hundred thousand men, directly and indirectly, and allowed a still larger reduction if the King could have been induced to consent to it. Every attempt at reform of the army involving reduction of the *cadres*, in Crispi's time and in the succeeding Ministry of Gen. Ricotti, however, broke down before the opposition of the King. In the beginning of the Triple Alliance, the German Government advised the reduction of the army by 100,000 men, which the King consented to only after financial disasters had made it imperative.

The "humiliation of the Abyssinian campaign" was directly and solely due to the King's refusal to permit the recall of Baratieri, who refused to obey the order of the Ministry.

The "crushing weight of ever-increasing taxation" is another fable. The fact is that Italy is rapidly growing rich, faster in proportion than France; and this great prosperity is the momentary salvation of the existing order of things, which politically is being continually undermined, and in the day of real national depression it will go down like a house of cards. The "growth of socialism and anarchy" is most rapid in the most prosperous portion of Italy, especially in Milan, where the wealth and commercial and industrial activity are greatest and the working classes are well to do.

From what I know of the new King, Victor Emanuel III., I believe he will be a sterner guardian of the prerogatives of the crown than his father was, and that his ideal of a sovereign is rather his grandfather. And he will do what his father never did, viz., listen to the counsels of Queen Margherita, who had always a higher standard of royal conduct than Humbert. But that any wisdom on the part of the sovereign can stop the decline, I do not believe. Italian politics are rotten, and the Parliament is the derision of the whole country. The Legislature, the bench, and the bar are to such a degree corrupt that no instrument of reform remains. The people would rejoice at the abolition of the elective chamber; it has no faith in the justice of the courts or the honesty of the *avvocati*—a hungry swarm, who, as my personal experience proves, are more ready to sell the case to the other side than to fight it out honestly. And the late King never moved a hand to further any reform.

Yours truly, W. J. STILLMAN.

FRIMLEY GREEN, SURREY, ENGLAND,
August 14, 1900.

THE MUSLIM LEGALITY OF CHESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you permit one whose knowledge of the problem of the origin of chess is derived mainly from the excellent article by "W. F." in your issue of the 16th, to offer one or two comments from the point of view of a student of Muslim jurisprudence?

In that article Professor Macdonell of Oxford is quoted as asserting that chess "may have become known in Spain under the Saracen ruler Hakem II. (961-976)," and that assertion is criticised as a mere inference and as based upon surmise.

I do not know why this especial "Saracen" is drawn into the controversy, but it is safe to say that chess must have been known in Spain under Hakam II. (I presume it is al-Mustansir, the Umayyad Khalifa of Cordova), and that he must have had in his library books dealing with chess. The reason is, that the legality of chess is one of the most vexed questions in Muslim law, and has been debated by the Muslim lawyers since the earliest times. Sections on it form part of every law book. The point not only is an ethical one, but has a direct bearing on legal praxis. Can one who plays chess for a stake or for nothing, often or occasionally, be admitted as a legal witness? Does such playing do away with his legal integrity and reduce him to be "a person of light understanding," whose testimony must be rejected? Over that the lawyers have fought since there was law in Islam; and it is evident that it was a question of a common practice of which law had to take account.

As I have few Arabic books here, I cannot quote much immediate evidence, but no student of Muslim law would ever dream of disputing what is said above. I give now what immediate evidence I can. In the time of the second Umayyad Khalifa, Yazid I. (A. H. 60-64; A. D. 680-683), chess (*shatranj*) was played at his court: see Von Kremer, 'Culturgeschichte,' i., p. 142, who refers to De Goeje, 'Fragm. Hist. Arab.,' p. 102, inaccessible to me here). Even then the legality was in doubt. The believer, according to a tradition from the Prophet, should amuse himself with three things only—his horse, his bow, and his wife or wives. These are evidently all on much the same basis; we may compare the saying of 'Umar, the second Khalifa, to his wife, "Thou art naught but a plaything in the corner of the house." What, in that case, asked the lawyers, is the position of such an amusement as chess? If a man plays it as a pastime, it comes within the sweep of this tradition, is useless, vain, and destroys legal status. If, on the other hand, he plays for a stake, it comes under the direct Qur'anic prohibition of gambling, as a thing in which there is more evil than profit. Such is the interpretation of the case by Abu Hanifa, the founder of one of the four legal rites, who died in A. H. 150 (A. D. 767). No legal writings of his have come down to us, but we have a tractate by his immediate pupil, Muhammad ibn al-Hasan (d. A. H. 189=A. D. 805) called 'al-Jami' as-Saghir fil-fiqh' (The Lesser Collection in Law), in which the opinion of the Master is clearly laid down that it is illegal to play at nard, shatranj, and fourteen, whatever that may have been. But ash-Shafi'i, the founder of another of the four schools, who died A. H. 204 (A. D. 817), ruled that while playing for a stake was distinctly illegal, yet a man might play at chess for the sake of his mind; it is, therefore, not simply an amusement, and so does not come within the tradition from the Prophet.

I regret that, situated as I am here, I am unable to state the views of Mālik ibn Anas and Ahmad ibn Hanbal, the founders of the remaining two schools. But enough has been given to show how important a part shatranj plays in Muslim law. Further, it is to be remembered that these four founders of schools were simply the first jurists to leave behind them a systematic body of teaching and a missionary school of pupils. The juristic development runs back far beyond their time, and, in fact, to the death of Muhammad in A. H. 11. I have already pointed to traces of shatranj in the reign of Yazid I. (A. D. 680-683), and I cannot doubt —if your writer will pardon my "English pen"—that the game, in Arabia, goes still farther back.

One word more. I do not understand how "unter seinem auf das Sanskrit *caturanga* zurückgehenden Namen" can be rendered, as it is on p. 132, col. 3, "under a name which is a reversion to the Sanskrit *caturanga*." DUNCAN B. MACDONALD.

NEW HARBOR, MAINE, August 20, 1900.

THE FORTUNES OF A PLAGIARISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Though, not improbably, the matter here brought forward has already been ventilated in some quarter or other, yet the historico-literary interest which attaches to it may be held to justify the hazard of repeating what can hardly be familiar to the general reader.

In 1727, William Warburton, eventually Right Reverend by celestial courtesy, but, from first to last, something very different, weighed ethically, put forth a small book, his second venture as an author. Its title, much too long to be transcribed in full, begins: *"A Critical and Philosophical Enquiry into the Causes of Prodigies and Miracles."* Of this performance, one of promise, but immature and ill-written, the final paragraph, in which the University of Oxford is had in contemplation, is in these words:

"Methinks I see her, like the mighty Eagle, renewing her *immortal Youth*, and purging her opening Sight at the unobstructed Beams of our benign Meridian SUN, which some pretend to say had been dazzled and abused by an inglorious pestilential METEOR; while the ill-affected Birds of Night wou'd, with their envious Hootings, prognosticate a Length of Darkness and Decay."

Warburton's salient peculiarities, illaudable as well as laudable, were pronounced already in his middle age; and his promotion to the episcopal bench failed to operate perceptibly in repressing manifestations of his coarse and intolerant idiosyncrasy. Coupled with genuine erudition—and such, though deficient in exactness, was his—we ordinarily observe, if not humility, a modest reticence; but, with him, it was wholly

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otherwise. At least, in the ranks of the learned, a man of more towering arrogance has been a phenomenon of rare occurrence. With mordant wit, it was said of him that he would have tossed up his nose at the twelve Apostles, if he had met them in the street. Such, even, was his ungracious disposition, that, as an author, he could not, to his content, announce his sense of his own matchless superiority, without indulging in jibes and flouts not far removed from billingsgate. To traverse his opinions, valid as might be the grounds for so doing, was, in his eyes, enough to stamp any one as well-nigh a criminal. Moreover, in the case of the dead whose views chanced to run counter to his own, his malice towards them was no less acrimonious, as were his denunciations of them no less contumelious, than they were when their objects were living speculators who deviated from his ways of thinking. In short, an odious type of humanity is that which he represented, despite the strenuous efforts of the sycophantic Bishop Hurd to paint him into fair-seeming. If, from an attorney, which he was at the outset of his career, he had efflouresced into a judge, and so realized a destiny to which his ability was competent, history might have had, in him, his environment permitting unbridled license of evil-speaking, a second Jeffreys. As it was, since he besmirched a mitre, instead of the ermine, we must go back to Bishop Bale, a passed-master in base invective, to discover his parallel. Curious reading, to particularize, is his correspondence, provided we are entitled to look for a personal exemplification of the charities and the proprieties in an official teacher of them. To do the consecrated swashbuckler even-handed justice, however, no slight praise is to be awarded him for the admirable letter of expostulation which he addressed to the notoriously unclerical Sterne.

Among the many on whom, to his discredit, this vulgar-souled prelate expectorated his spite, was one whom he must have heartily wished that he had not provoked to retaliate. This was Robert Lowth, who, in 1765, the year before he was raised to the see of St. David's, was incited to reply to his traducer.

The circumstances were these. Lowth, in his *De Sacrâ Poesi Hebræorum Prælectiones*, where discussing the *Book of Job*, took exception, but without specifying anybody, to certain theorists, for postponing its date to the Babylonian Captivity. These theorists, he says, "non multo sanius in Hebraicis judicare videantur, quam in Latinis Harduinus." Warburton, in the catalogue of whose accomplishments a critical acquaintance with Latin was not included, understood, by *non multo sanius . . . quam*, "almost as *insanely* . . . as," and, besides, found himself bracketed with the fantastic Père Hardouin, who had contended that the works attributed to Virgil and Horace were forgeries of medieval monastics. This, with similar causes of offence, produced a result that was to be anticipated. The unseemly details are to be seen in the Appendix to Book vi. of the *Divine Legation*, which, only slightly exaggerating, Lowth charges with "sophistry, buffoonery, and scurrility."

In his vivacious and incisive answer, Lowth thus makes mention of his adversary's juvenile essay above adverted to:

"You set out with favourable thoughts and high notions of the University of Oxford, and, in one of your first literary performances, at a time when your panegyric was not, certainly, better applied than it might have been now, you no sooner touched upon the subject than you took fire at the bright idea: rapt in the spirit of prophetic enthusiasm, your *Musa Pedestris* immediately got on horseback, and, mounted on her Pegasus, away she went in this high prancing style:

> 'majorque videri
> Nec mortale sonans':
> 'Methinks I see her, like the mighty Eagle, renewing her *immortal Youth*, and purging her opening Sight at th' unobstructed Beams of our benign Meridian Sun; which some pretend to say had been dazled and abused by an inglorious pestilential Meteor; while th' ill-affected Birds of Night would, with their envious hootings, prognosticate a Length of Darkness and Decay.'

And here is a passage from the *Areopagitica*, which any of my readers conversant with English literature according to the standard of the present day will have expected to be adduced in connection with what precedes:

"Methinks I see in my mind a noble and puissant Nation rousing herself like a strong man after sleep, and shaking her invincible locks: Methinks I see her as an Eagle muing her mighty youth, and kindling her undazl'd eyes at the full midday beam; purging and unscaling her long abused sight at the fountain it self of heav'nly radiance, while the whole noise of timorous and flocking birds, with those also that love the twilight, flutter about, amaz'd at what she means, and in their envious gabble would prognosticat a year of sects and schisms."

To draw to a conclusion, there now appears on the stage one who, though his supreme aim was to strut behind a pastoral staff, never succeeded in flourishing otherwise than as mere Dr. Parr. With no motive more creditable than a wish to annoy, this pompous and sterile bookworm was pleased to unearth and reprint, in 1789, what forms a collection entitled *Tracts by Warburton and a Warburtonian*, in which, at p. 140, is the first quotation given in this letter.

Neither Lowth nor Parr, if cognizant that Warburton had plagiarized, though no more than nibblingly, from Milton, would have forborne to blazon and accentuate the fact. But the prose works of the poet, down to the time when the present century was well advanced, were very little recognized. As regards his poetry, indeed, even in the days of Queen Anne it had become so far neglected that the essays devoted to it in the *Spectator* virtually announced a revelation to Addison's contemporaries. Political and ecclesiastical prejudices, both then and long after, as earlier, conspired to keep his transcendent merits largely veiled in eclipse. For instance, shortly after his death, he was, to Thomas Flatman, in his dreary *Heraclitus Ridens*, only "old Milton," and "that grand Whig Milton," and was depressed to a parity with the low-bred Edmund Hickeringill; as late as 1718, to the author of the *Entertainer*, he was, in round terms, "infamous"; and no one requires to be told of the gross injustice done him by Dr. Johnson. Not at all unlikely is it, that his having the free-thinker Toland for biographer and editor was, with many, a factor detrimental to his memory. Little is the wonder, then, everything considered, that Warburton felt secure in picking and stealing from him, and that his thievery should have gone undetected by Lowth and Parr,—all which is noteworthy, as contributing to shed an interesting light on English scholarship in the eighteenth century. F. H.

Marlesford, England, June 28, 1900.

P.S.—The *Dictionary of National Biography*, since I dwell in the wilderness, I have no opportunity of seeing; and I was unaware, till the Editor of the *Nation*, by sending an extract from it, after reading this letter, apprised me that Warburton's plagiarism had been exposed by Mr. Leslie Stephen. As has been seen, however, it is Oxford, not, as Mr. Stephen has it, Cambridge, that the Bishop alludes to. And now have I been forestalled in tracing the fortunes, in the last century, of Warburton's pilfering? All the materials of my letter, and arranged as above, I have had by me upwards of thirty years. F. H.

July 21, 1900.

Notes.

Henry Holt & Co.'s preliminary fall announcements include the first two volumes of 'A History of Political Parties in the United States,' by Prof. J. P. Gordy of the Ohio State University; 'The German and Swiss Settlements of Pennsylvania,' by Prof. L. Oscar Kuhns of Wesleyan University; 'A Source-Book of English History,' edited by Dr. Guy Carleton Lee of Johns Hopkins; 'The Seventeenth Century in France,' selections from well-known authors by H. Isabelle Williams and Delphine Duval of Smith College; 'A Short History of French Literature,' by L. B. Kastner and H. G. Atkins; 'A French and English Dictionary,' by Prof. A. H. Edgren and Percy B. Burnet; 'The Elements of German,' by Dr. H. C. Bierwirth of Harvard; 'Byron's Selected Poems,' edited by Dr. F. I. Carpenter of Chicago University; 'Pater: Selections,' by Prof. E. E. Hale, jr.; 'An Agricultural Botany,' by Prof. John Percival; 'A Manual of the Flora of the Northern States and Canada,' by Prof. N. L. Britton; and 'The Anatomy of the Cat,' by Prof. Jacob E. Reighard and Dr. Herbert S. Jennings.

From Dodd, Mead & Co.'s list we select 'The Chinese Problem,' by Chester Holcombe; 'Chapters on War and Policy,' by Spenser Wilkinson, military critic of the London *Morning Post;* 'Travels in London, Paris, and Berlin,' by the late G. W. Steevens; 'Life and Sport on the Pacific Slope,' by Horace Annesley Vachell; 'Pompeii,' by Pierre Gusman, with numerous illustrations, many colored; 'African Nights' Entertainment,' by A. J. Dawson; 'From the Land of the Shamrock,' by Jane Barlow; 'Wanted: A Matchmaker,' an illustrated Christmas story, by Paul Leicester Ford; 'New York in Fiction,' by Arthur Bartlett Maurice, editor of the *Bookman;* 'William Morris,' a critical essay, with selections by Prof. Wilbur L. Cross of Yale; the two final volumes of Augustus J. C. Hare's Life; 'A Short History of Music,' by Anna A. Chapin; 'Musical Studies and Silhouettes,' from the French of Camille Bellaigue; 'Idle Idyls,' by Carolyn Wells, illustrated by Oliver Herford; 'Pictoris Carmina,' illustrated by the author, Frederic Crowninshield; 'The Wedding Day in Literature and Art,' by C. F. Carter; Shakspere's "As You Like It," illustrated by Will H. Low; 'Pippa Passes,' illustrated by Margaret Armstrong; and 'The Pronunciation of 10,000 Proper Names,' by Mary Stuart Mackey and Marietta S. Mackey.

The significant items in T. Y. Crowell & Co.'s list are a new and complete illustrated edition of Balzac's 'Human Comedy,' in sixteen volumes (*de luxe*, thirty-two), with

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elaborate introductions by Prof. W. P. Trent of Columbia; Tolstoy's 'Complete Works,' in twelve volumes, edited by Nathan Haskell Dole, and his 'Essays, Letters and Miscellanies'; 'The Poetry of the Psalms,' by the Rev. Henry van Dyke; and 'The Religion of a Gentleman,' by the Rev. Charles F. Dole.

The Century Company will market here the sumptuous centennial edition of the 'Fairy Tales of Hans Christian Andersen,' illustrated by the foremost Danish artist, Hans Tegner. The translation is new.

From Doxey's, No. 15 East Seventeenth Street, will issue 'Jacinta,' poems by Howard T. Sutherland.

'Mr. Dooley's Philosophy,' by F. P. Dunne, illustrated by F. Opper and others, is in the press of R. H. Russell.

'The Church Past and Present,' by the Bishop of London and others, and 'Essays Practical and Doctrinal,' by the Rev. S. D. McConnell, D.D., are announced by Thomas Whittaker.

D. Appleton & Co. will shortly issue 'The Boers in War,' by Howard C. Hillegas.

'The Law of Operations Preliminary to Construction in Engineering and Architecture,' by John Cassan Wait, is to be published by John Wiley & Sons.

Eaton & Mains have in preparation 'A History of Babylonia and Assyria,' in two volumes, by Robert William Rogers, LL.D.

E. P. Dutton & Co. announce "The Library for Young Naturalists," edited by F. Afialo, "for boys," as the publishers explain—but why not for "youth," regardless of sex?

A timely third edition of Thomas Hudson McKee's approved manual, 'The National Conventions and Platforms of All Political Parties, 1789-1900' (Baltimore: Friedenwald Co.), brings it down to date, and now one has at command all the platforms, all the candidates' names (barring third party this year if it come into being), all the electoral and popular votes. As respects the platforms, it is a mine for study. Portraits of all the Presidents, from engravings, are thrown in.

We reviewed in the early summer the French original of the translation now published by Harper & Bros., 'From India to the Planet Mars: A Study of a Case of Somnambulism,' by Prof. Flournoy of Geneva. The present version is by Daniel B. Vermilye of Columbia University, who furnishes also an introduction. Views of the Martian landscape, which recalls Japan, with sundry facsimiles, adorn the volume.

Mr. I. C. Hannah, M.A., Trinity College, Cambridge, was Master of the English school at Tientsin for two years, and used his spare time there in compiling 'A Brief History of Eastern Asia' (London: T. Fisher Unwin). His book shows diligence and care, but it essays a hopeless impossibility. No one could compress within such narrow limits an adequate treatment, on however small a scale, of the history from prehistoric times till now of all Asia, even when those countries are excepted which go more peculiarly with the Mediterranean—Persia, Syria, Arabia, and Asia Minor. Nor was Mr. Hannah supported in his task by an adequate width of reading. It is true that such a thesaurus as Dr. Williams's 'Middle Kingdom' is in his bibliography, but it shows very oddly beside a string of books, doubtless excellent in their way, from the various series of the S. P. C. K. and the "Story of the Nations." Further, Lord Macaulay's 'Essays' are not accepted historical sources, and Allen and Myers's 'Ancient History for Colleges and High Schools' may be left to such institutions. In this bibliography, too, there is not a single volume in any language but English. Mr. Hannah has turned out what will be for many a suggestive if irritating book; but it is a great pity that he did not rather give himself to a study of Chinese education, or some other subject on which he must have been in a position to acquire first-hand knowledge. The writing of histories may be turned over with advantage to the less fortunate people who must stay at home and read books.

The 'Traditions of the Chilcotin Indians' are described by Livingston Farrand in the latest publication of the Jesup North Pacific Expedition. It forms the first part of volume iv. of the Memoirs of the American Museum of Natural History. The Chilcotins are of Athapascan stock, and occupy a territory lying chiefly in the valley of the Chilcotin River, in the interior of British Columbia. The most elaborate and best known of the traditions is that in which are related the adventures of the culture-hero and transformer Lendix:tcux and his three sons. A striking fact revealed by the study of this tale is that analogues for nearly every element of the story are found in the mythologies of neighboring tribes, while in no one is there a complete correspondent of the whole myth. The present collection will, it is believed, prove an instructive contribution to the comparative mythology of the Indians.

'The Thompson Indians of British Columbia' is another memoir by James Teit, in the same series. These Indians were once known as the "Couteau" or Knife tribe. They are of the Salish stock, and their habitat is a region embracing about 9,000 square miles in the southern interior of British Columbia. In appearance they resemble other tribes of the western plateaus, and their culture bears evidence of having been influenced by the north Pacific coast tribes and, to a greater extent, by the Plains Indians. Their style of dress, their use of feather ornaments, and their method of building round tents instead of square lodges, are the result of contact with their eastern neighbors by way of the Nicola Valley. Their manufactures show affiliations with those of the coast, and their tools for woodwork, hammers, harpoons, and fish-knives are evidently copies of implements used by the coast tribes. Their sagebrush-bark fabrics are of the same make as the cedar-bark garments of the coast. Their whole social organization is very simple, and the range of their religious ideas and observances very limited when compared with those of other American tribes. Numerous woodcuts and several heliotypes illustrate this publication.

Still a third memoir is 'Symbolism of the Huichol Indians,' by Carl Lumholtz. It opens with a brief sketch of the characteristics of the Huichols, a tribe numbering about 4,000 individuals living on a spur of the great Sierra Madre in the northwestern part of the State of Jalisco, Mexico. They are of medium height, light reddish-brown in color, emotional and cowardly. They are very healthy, subsisting all the year round on corn and beans, and eating meat only at their religious feasts; the hunting of deer and the killing of cattle being always connected with religious ceremonials. From their symbolism it may be inferred that the moving principle of their religion is the desire of producing rain, and thus successfully raising vegetables. Their philosophy of life is summed up in the remark of a Huichol servant: "To pray for luck to Tatévali [the god of fire] and to put up snares for the deer—that is to lead a perfect life." Their principal gods are obviously natural phenomena personified, and represent the "four elements." Among the symbolic objects which occupy a most prominent place in their religious cult are ceremonial arrows and backshields, which serve to convey personal supplications, and front-shields, used in tribal prayers. The votive shield is the most important symbol, and is adapted to serve as a kind of sign-language between man and god. The resemblance of these objects, if arrayed in rows, to the shield-shaped writing in the ancient Maya temples and codices suggests an explanation of the origin of Maya writing. This memoir is abundantly illustrated, partly in color.

The prospectus of the *Monthly Review*, to be edited by Henry Newbolt, and published by John Murray in September-October, is taking in many ways. A serial novel, illustrations, and a permanent editorial department are to be regular features; the illustrations not for ornament, but for their legitimate purpose of elucidation, and therefore quite subservient to the text. The editorial writings will be by many hands under one control, and all unsigned. The type to be employed is large and handsome.

A few years ago a gentleman well known in French educational circles pointed out to us, from the upper window of the only building now remaining of the palace of St. Cloud and its appurtenances, the wooded heights and valley of Meudon, "once the abode of Rabelais," where, to quote from another French source, "he amused his parishioners with his songs and copious draughts, if he did not edify them by his ecclesiastical virtues." Now M. Brunetière tells us, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for August 1, that very likely "le joyeuse curé de Meudon" never set foot on the soil of his parish, and that, possibly, he never drank anything but water. That the extreme vulgarity of the author of Gargantua and Pantagruel in any degree reflects his own life, we have no right to assume in the light of what is known of the latter. But M. Brunetière, as might be expected, does not withhold his severe condemnation of the writer, much as he enjoys his originality, enthusiasm, power, and style. The essay, which is a chapter from a History of Classical French Literature soon to appear, strikes us as one of M. Brunetière's best productions.

The chair occupied by M. Levasseur at the Collège de France bears at present the name of "Chaire de géographie, histoire et statistique économiques." The name dates from 1885, but M. Levasseur commenced his lectures as early as January, 1869, and received his regular appointment in December, 1871. Upon the request of the editor of the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement*, he now gives an account of his thirty-two years of teaching, in the July number. Besides explaining his conception of the subject intrusted to him, and showing in what spirit he has treated it, he gives a complete list of the topics discussed in the many hundreds of lectures delivered from the beginning of his career at the Collège. Their

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scope is wide, and comprises a large part of the countries and nations of the globe. To this continent he devoted forty-two lectures in 1872-'73, and one hundred and twenty-five during 1881-'84; to the United States alone two hundred and forty-four in the years 1893-'99. France, very naturally, received the lion's share of his long-continued study and teaching. As hardly any of M. Levasseur's lectures have been printed, even these summaries of courses will not be without interest to students of economics. Much of the material presented to his hearers at the Collège de France, however, has been used in M. Levasseur's published works, of which he speaks briefly in his communication to the *Revue*.

The need of a radical change in elementary education in rural England was strongly urged by the Duke of Devonshire at the annual prize distribution at the Countess of Warwick's technical science and agricultural school at Bigods, Essex. Referring to the statement made in Parliament that the squire and the farmer were not, generally speaking, friends to education, he gave as the reason that the effect of the present system was simply "to induce the cleverest, the brightest, and the most energetic of our boys and girls to leave their villages in the country and to seek for other occupation in the great towns." The great obstacle, of course, to the immediate substitution of a rational system is the want of teachers properly qualified to fit girls, for instance, to take part in the management of the dairy, the garden, and the orchard; but the secondary schools are being reorganized and agricultural schools and colleges established to meet this want. It remains to be seen whether the farming class will realize the value of the new methods of instruction.

The increasing importance of our trade with Germany—the value of the exports from the northern part of the empire alone to this country for the first quarter of the present year amounting to eighteen millions of dollars, or double that of 1898—gives especial value to Consul-General Mason's effort, in the July Consular Reports, to remove the trade misunderstandings which prevail between the two nations and provoke much hostility. He shows, by many instances, that they arise most frequently from ignorance or "failure to comprehend the many customs and details of practice in respect to which the two peoples differ, radically, but honestly, as the inevitable result of diverse traditions, education, and racial instincts." As an incentive to American importers, he says that among the Germans at large there is "no prejudice in favor of home-made goods." An interesting account is given of a cabinet-making school at Magdeburg, founded and almost wholly supported by a mechanic. Each apprentice is given four lessons a week for three years in the use of tools, free-hand drawing, design, decoration, and sculpture, the instructors being mainly "boss mechanics" of the cabinet-makers, aided by a few salaried teachers.

The principal topic of the August Reports is a detailed account of the Brazilian railways, from which it appears that there are 63 separate lines operating 9,197 miles of road, costing nearly six hundred million dollars, with a net income of about one-half of 1 per cent. There are also several reports on the foreign trade of China, showing its astonishing increase up to the outbreak of the "Boxer" rebellion. Referring to the effect of the railways, it is said that "immediately trains begin to run, districts through which there was comparatively little traffic, such as between Paoting and Pekin, suddenly commence to hum with life and activity, and there springs up a flourishing trade which was formerly undreamed of and impossible for want of cheap transport." In answer to the frequent inquiry as to what language must be used in sending out catalogues—"some firms offer them in German, but more in Spanish"!—a consul says: "One must know either English or Chinese, or starve." He adds that English is regarded as solely the language of Great Britain, "for most Chinese imagine that Americans speak another tongue, and, like the Germans, French, and others, must learn English."

—There was certainly room for a good one-volume history of Puritan Massachusetts, but we cannot think that Mr. Daniel Wait Howe's 'Puritan Republic' (Indianapolis: Bowen-Merrill Co.) quite fills the gap. At the same time, the book has a good deal to commend it. The author's enthusiasm for his subject has led him to the sources of information, and his pages show industrious and intelligent use of the early records and laws, and the writings of contemporary actors. The chapters on various phases of Puritan life, especially religion and church-going, education and the professions, agriculture and trade, and the daily family round, are both entertaining and instructive. What we miss is the orderly and straightforward narrative of events, showing the rapid development of Massachusetts Puritanism from an ecclesiastical system to a form of government, and the disappearance of the old theocracy under the combined influences of social expansion and political complications. Such topics as the relation of church and state, the controversies with Roger Williams, Mrs. Hutchinson, and the Quakers, and the loss of the old charter, Mr. Howe, indeed, treats with particular fulness, and with many interesting additions to the common stock of incident; but the prevailing episodical method is hardly successful in impressing the characteristics of the period as a whole. The author's historical judgments, while not profound, are restrained and fair, and the whole tone of the work bespeaks a writer who venerates, but does not blindly worship, the Puritans and their deeds.

—'The Rockies of Canada,' by Mr. W. D. Wilcox (Putnams), is based upon 'Camping in the Canadian Rockies,' which appeared four years ago, but the difference between the first and second editions is so great that the change of title is quite justified. Mr. Wilcox has continued his visits to the Rockies and Selkirks since 1896, with excellent results, if one may judge from the new photogravures and from the account of fresh geographical exploration. When reviewing the former volume, we called attention to the absence of maps. This defect, the only one of consequence in the book, has since been repaired, for Mr. Wilcox now gives us "a special contour map which shows the details of the country near Lake Louise, and a general map of the Rocky Mountains, compiled from all the best maps hitherto published, supplemented by several recent sketches." There is also a good plan of the district between the Kicking-horse and Vermilion Passes. Among the additions to the text must be mentioned special chapters on "Mountaineering," "Camp Life," "Hunting and Fishing," and "The Stony Indians." During the past few years a good deal of new country around the head of the Saskatchewan has been travelled, the region of Mount Assiniboine has become better known, and several of the mountains near the railway have been climbed by different routes. The geographical part of the present edition is, we think, more important than the other supplementary material, and we shall accordingly confine our notice to it. Mount Assiniboine, which attracted Mr. Wilcox's attention in 1894, has been revisited by him, and information concerning it occupies a prominent place among his original discoveries. This peak, situated about twenty-five miles from Banff, may be called the finest of the Canadian Rockies to the south of the railway. Its height has been fixed by the Geological Survey of Canada at 11,830 feet, and in outline it bears strong features of resemblance to the Matterhorn. It can be reached by several routes from Banff, but the line which lies "along the high plateau region on the summit of the Rockies is the most varied and interesting way." Mr. Wilcox has now seen every side of it, and thinks that the south face offers the best chance of an ascent. "Every side of this mountain is exceedingly steep, the east face being an absolute precipice, and the other two having slopes that average fifty degrees. The rock strata are nearly horizontal, and are eroded into many precipitous bands which girdle the mountain, and these, together with the disintegrated limestone and frequent fresh snow, will make it a difficult prize for the climber." Besides describing his own discoveries, Mr. Wilcox records the ascents made by English tourists in 1897 and 1898. Dr. Norman Collie sought for two seasons to discover where Mount Brown and Mount Hooker, which have long held a lofty place in the geographies, really lay, and whether they reached the height of 16,000 and 18,000 feet ascribed to them. While proving the existence of grave errors with respect to the peaks in question, he incidentally came across some magnificent summits between the source of the North Fork of the Saskatchewan and the Athabasca. The next ten years will probably see much climbing and map-making in this region. By exploring and keeping pace with other explorers, Mr. Wilcox has made his 'Rockies of Canada' the standard work for at least some time to come.

—In volumes lxvii. and lxviii. of the 'Jesuit Relations' (Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.) the documents are numerous, and relate to settlements which lie scattered over New France from the Saguenay to New Orleans, and from Acadia to the Mississippi. The period covered, 1716-'36, was one of rapid decadence for the Indians, and their decline can easily be traced in the reports of the missionaries. For instance, at Tadoussac, where there had once been a settlement of nearly three thousand men, only twenty-five families remained in 1730. Disease had been rampant, the savages no longer dared to put out from shore after the seal, and the sedentary life had lost its attractions. If, among the Montagnais, miseries of all sorts abound, the case is no better with their former scourges, the Iroquois. Those of the Caughnawaga Mission are said to improve in their singing, but at home they "are visibly on

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the decrease, on account of their incessant quarrels and the use of intoxicants supplied by the English." One sign that the Iroquois are losing their fangs is their willingness to use the Huron speech when repeating the services of the church. At Caughnawaga they actually prefer it. More and more the centre of interest shifts from the St. Lawrence and Hudson to the Mississippi, and even to the lower Mississippi. While the northern tribes dwindle, Louisiana becomes prominent, and in these volumes it takes a leading place. Towards the end of 1729, the Natchez Indians murdered over two hundred French who had settled in their midst. A minute description of the tragedy is given by Mathurin le Petit, who also enters fully into the usages of the tribe and the subsequent alliance between the Choctaws and French for revenge. According to him, the Natchez Indians possess a more regular kind of worship than exists among any other race of the aborigines. They are sun worshippers, and have a temple elaborately fitted out. "The great chief of this nation, who knows nothing on earth more dignified than himself, takes the title of brother of the Sun, and the credulity of the people maintains him in the despotic authority which he claims." Despite the relative superiority of their religious system, the Natchez were not remarkable among the southern tribes for their prowess, and the French, with the help of their native allies, had little difficulty in recapturing the women who were taken at the time of the massacre. At the close of the old régime, one casts about in vain for a really vigorous tribe or confederacy among the North American Indians. The wonder is that Pontiac should have made so much trouble for the English as he did, with the shattered tribes at his disposal.

—The proposal of Prof. Karl Breul, professor of German in the University of Cambridge, England, that the German Government establish in London an institution for German teachers of English, is a much wider-reaching proposition than at first sight appears. As thus presented, the scheme seems to be merely pedagogical in its intent; but it is pretty safe to say that its commercial aspect is the one which will appeal most strongly to the German Government. For the Germans have not been slow to realize that successful competition with England in English markets means to understand the art of supplying English wants in an English way, and that competition with England in the field of her foreign markets means the learning of English methods of production. A great deal of the German enthusiasm for the study of a culture which in its beginnings is intimately related to their own, and of a speech which is closely allied to their own tongue, has received aid and support from a long-headed German shrewdness only now coming to be recognized as somewhat dangerous to England's commercial supremacy. It will not be strange, therefore, if this, which seems on its surface to be a mere academic proposition, based upon such considerations as have led to the founding of the German archæological institutes in Rome and in Athens, will soon be an accomplished fact. Whatever be the economic results of the step, its effect upon German scholarship in English (a matter which Professor Breul has always shown the deepest concern for) cannot be anything but beneficial. For Germany, with her conspicuous devotion to scientific methods of English study, has all along betrayed a somewhat lamentable lack of appreciation of New English habits of thought—a lack which, while it is not apparent in the work of the best German scholars, is plainly manifest in the products of German teaching which come to us in the way of doctoral dissertations. A more intimate contact with the life and speech of England on the part of young German students of English cannot fail to improve German scholarship in this particular. We therefore cordially welcome Professor Breul's proposal, and hope that the German Government, whether it acts upon prudential motives or upon the higher one of sound scholarship, will soon put it into practical operation.

—So far as we know, no branch of the Government has supplied its medical or other officers sent to the Philippines with any particular advice as to the peculiarities of the diseases to be found there, or with suggestions for their avoidance or treatment. Nor is there any school of tropical diseases in the United States, although such a specialty will surely be added to the higher medical colleges when it is settled that there will be a permanent assignment of the Filipino burden to the superior race. As it stands, our medical service has not been specially equipped except so far as it is known that the regular medical officers, both afloat and ashore, are unusually well educated for all-around work, and the volunteers have at least been examined up to a fair standard. But a large part of the daily service in the field and in the hospital must necessarily fall upon the physicians under contract, to whom, although they are selected as far as possible from an excellent class, extreme tests cannot be applied. It is to be regretted that some concise and authoritative selection of medical information, especially applicable to the regions whither so many of our citizens have been sent as strangers, has not been supplied, at least for information if not formally for guidance.

—These remarks are induced by a paper on "Medicine and Disease in the Philippines," by Dr. David J. Doherty of Chicago, reprinted from the *Journal* of the American Medical Association of June 16. It is a brief compilation from a dozen writers, chiefly from the 'Estudia para una Nosologia Filipina,' by Dr. Enrique M. Barcones of the Spanish Navy, which was the result of two years' intelligent observation. The essence is that the continued heat and moisture lead to muscular lassitude and weakness, and to curtailed respiratory action, and that these effects in turn become causes. Dr. Doherty is entirely correct. Many diseases in the Philippines, unlike those in temperate climates, have no spontaneous tendency towards recovery, and in those where suppuration sets in there is a steady downward course until actively arrested. This is particularly true of tuberculosis, which is very common, and it rapidly assumes in the stranger an acute form that carries him off with astonishing rapidity. The initial malarial disease is not generally severe, at least in Luzon; but the victims of Cuban infection quickly break down, and certainly a year should elapse after their apparent recovery before they venture to the Asiatic field. Yellow fever is one of the serious diseases from which the Philippines are exempt, but Manson's warning should be heeded that, after the Isthmian Canal is open, there will be great risk, at least to the white races, that it may be carried direct from its Central American habitat. Dr. Doherty refers to the University of Manila as probably having sent forth a supply of physicians for many years, if not for generations. Under the Spanish régime, the course of study embraced six years, beginning at a tender age, and culminated in a degree corresponding to the baccalaureate, when the graduates became *practicantes*. To obtain the doctorate required attendance at and authority from the University of Madrid.

COBBOLD'S INNERMOST ASIA.

Innermost Asia. Travel and Sport in the Pamirs. By Ralph P. Cobbold (late Sixtieth Rifles). Charles Scribner's Sons 1900. Pp. xviii+354.

It would be interesting to know what Mr. Skrine of 'The Heart of Asia,' which we reviewed some little time ago, thinks of Mr. Cobbold and his book. What Mr. Cobbold thinks of Mr. Skrine and *his* book can be under no manner of doubt if we identify him—and that, too seems subject to no doubt—with the "gentleman of reputation," on p. 253, "who has recently paid a visit to Turkestan," and been wofully hoodwinked and crammed by his Russian ciceroni. And, indeed, the books are above all interesting in their utter divergence as to the characteristics of their writers, and as to their methods and their results. To Mr. Cobbold, Mr. Skrine would be a "political," more exactly an "ex-political"; and therewith all would be said. Mr. Skrine, on the other hand, might deplore in Mr. Cobbold a lack of training in social problems and in history, and, above all, a lamentable insularity of attitude and narrowness of mind. He might possibly be sarcastic towards Mr. Cobbold's weakness for Byronic rhapsodies on nature and solitude, and for quotations from Thomas Moore, but we trust not. Those things ring true in him if they seem simple-minded to the most of us now, with our involved introspections in the presence of the Mighty Mother.

Mr. Cobbold went up into the Pamirs, as a healthy young sportsman may, in search of big game. He found his big game, and tells us about it at length in a straightforward fashion. He photographed, too, right and left—among other things, an *Ovis Poli* alive; but he does not tell us that this gigantic mountain sheep got its name from Marco Polo. Many of the photographs which he gives are very striking and beautiful, only it is a pity that the process reproduction has not done justice to their details. Some of them, also, are puzzling and suggest manipulation. On p. 45 there is one of an *Ovis Poli* supposed to be alive, but within three feet of it there is what seems to be a sheep dog looking down on it benevolently. Another, of "some twenty Chinese Sepoys riding towards me" in hot pursuit, is a very calm procession of about thirteen photographed from the side. But up in the mountains our author found other things besides big game. He found Russia there; and the impression which Russia and things Russian gave him was by no means pleasant. Most of the things which he learned, his experiences and sensations, he gives in his book, but not all. Certain facts seemed to him to be of too great political importance to be openly circulated. This

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sounds ominous, and on p. 230 there is another ominous remark on the dogmatic ignorance of "a certain official, a very big man high up in the service," whose name is withheld "for the present." Other facts which he does give might, perhaps, have been better away—better, that is, for certain people. The Russians will not love the Mimbashi of Roshan when they know how intensely hostile to them he is, and how he would welcome the English. Nor will Kevekiss, the Russian commandant at Charog, be helped with his superiors by the account of his sayings and doings here. Mr. Cobbold is evidently a young man still, and has probably a good deal to learn about official possibilities, subjective and objective, and official difficulties and responsibilities, but there does not seem to be any question that he entered on his trip with a mind at peace with all men, and principally occupied with his rifle and camera, and that he has returned a thorough-going Russophobe, with a store of facts Russian and a mission to see that they are known.

Starting from Srinagar, his route lay over the Gilgit military road to Hunza-Nagar; thence by the Kilik pass and the Tashdumbash Pamir to Tashkurghan in Chinese Turkestan, and on to Kashgar. Kashgar, a city of merchants, is described at length, with its motley population—the Sarts and their Chinese rulers; the Russian Consul-General, who, in turn, rules the Chinese Governor; and the British representative, who is not even a vice-consul, but is called "Special **Assistant** to the Resident in Kashmir for Chinese Affairs," and who rules nobody. Then from Kashgar into Russian territory over the Turgart pass to Vierny; from there to Lake Balkash, where a Central Asian tiger was bagged; back to Kashgar, and from thence out again for another campaign in the Pamirs, this time on the Russian side. The route lay through the Geez defile, and over the Kara Art pass to the Great Kara Kul in Russian territory; from there deviously to Tashkurghan on the Bartang, and down the Bartang to Kala Wamar. The last is ground known, among Europeans, to Russians only; the Oxus at this point and Roshan and Shignan have been practically inaccessible since their occupation. So Mr. Cobbold found. At Kashgar he had received through the Russian Consul-General a pass permitting him to travel and shoot in the Russian Pamirs, but his movements, coupled with the Muhammadan outbreak in Ferghana, which took place at the time, roused official suspicion, and at Kala Wamar he was arrested. For several weeks he was kept there and at Charog, a Russian fort established in 1896, opposite Kala Bar Panja, but eventually his bona fides became plain, and he was permitted to return to Chinese Turkestan by way of the Bartang and the Kara Art pass. From there he zigzagged down through the Oi-balgin pass, the Rang Kul Pamir, Tagharma, and Tashkurghan, visited the source of the Oxus in the Wakhan Pamir by the Wakh-jir pass, and finally returned to Kashmir over the Mintaka pass, Misgar, and Hunza. The return was by no means easy. It is the policy of the English Government to discourage all travel on the northern frontiers. This is apparently to avoid possible complications with Afghanistan, Russia, or China. So it was with difficulty that Mr. Cobbold had received permission to go north on the Gilgit road in the first instance; and now, he was delayed long both at Hunza and at Gilgit before he was allowed fairly to go back into India. On the route as a whole it may be remarked that several points are left rather vague, Mr. Cobbold not being exactly a geographical specialist.

As has been indicated above, this is by no means an orderly treatise on Central Asian affairs. It is an unsystematic record of how the situation there struck an onlooker whose main interests were elsewhere. But, for all that, there is great value in it for the careful reader. What precisely is the Russian wish and hope in the advance movement? Not, it may be noticed, the attitude of the Tsar or even that of the St. Petersburg officials generally, but that of the men on the spot. Again and again the hand of the central Government has been forced, willingly or unwillingly, by a daring rush on their part, and it is probable that we shall see something of that kind very soon both in Mantchuria and in Chinese Turkestan. Mr. Cobbold's testimony is that of all travellers in Central Asia who have not been officially and personally conducted. The whole Russian system, military and civil, leans eagerly forward. Russia's boundary at the least is to be the Hindu Kush with its continuations westward: Wakhan, Badakhshan, northern Afghanistan, Persia, and Baluchistan must all fall to her, and she must control the Persian Gulf. Thus the Oxus boundary is not regarded as of any permanent validity, nor that recently laid through the Pamirs. As an illustration, the English occupation of Chitral did not come a day too soon. It is well over the Hindu Kush, yet the Commandant of the Pamirsky post had received definite instructions to seize it; they came just too late. The authority for this was Kevekiss himself, who has at Charog a careful spy system and agents communicating with Cabul, Chitral, Yasin, and Gilgit. At present—this on the authority of the Mimbashi of Roshan—there is an intrigue going on between the Amir of Bokhara and the Badakhshani and Tajik subjects of Afghanistan on the left bank of the Oxus. The Russian Minister of War has given him five years to persuade them to throw off their allegiance and declare themselves Bokhariots. Then, of course, the boundary will move.

Everywhere among the Muslims, Mr. Cobbold found a strong anti-Russian sentiment. Such a feeling is natural in itself, but he ascribes its depth to the corruption of the officials and the confessed system of bribery which their low pay has brought about. The Muslim attitude towards the English Government is different. They are, of course, unbelievers and dogs, sons of dogs; yet under them there is no *zulm*, but even-handed justice, which cannot be bought. He is convinced that, in the final struggle,

> "that dreadful battle drawing nigh,
> To shake the Afghan passes strait and sheer."

the whole Muslim population of Asia will take the English side. The Bokhariots may hate the Afghans; the Amir of Afghanistan, who is like the Emperor of Austria, in that his death will bring the deluge, may coquette with Russia and secretly help the Afridis; but, in the last issue, they will all turn to England, especially if England has the support of the great Sultan of the Muslims at Constantinople. There the key to the Eastern question still lies.

On commerce, agriculture, mining, and manufactures, Mr. Cobbold has detailed appendices of much value. It is all a matter of communications, and until the railway system is more developed, the country cannot be opened. At present there are practically no mines or factories to speak of, and no opening for capital till connection is made with the great markets. He laments especially the policy of the English Government in shutting the Hunza-Nagar route to Kashgar (a commercial centre of the first importance, with five or six miles of shops), and thus ruining the Indian trade with Chinese Turkestan.

Criticism of the details of such a book as this is hardly in place. Its origin was not in the study among dictionaries and encyclopædias, but in the saddle and the *yourt*; on mountainside and glacier. Yet it cannot but be a surprise that one who has lived so long and intimately among Muslims should know in some ways so little about them. They are "Mussulmen," and "pilgrimage to the shrine of the Prophet"; the ordinary *mut'a* marriage of Shi'ites is not recognized (p. 76), nor is the story of Ali and his sons, Hasan and Husayn (p. 169). The sound and the translation of the call to prayers are given on p. 192 in the most fearsomely original form we have ever seen even of that much-enduring formula. More serious is a snap judgment (p. 291) on the Chinese commercial morality; other competent observers have rated it much higher.

Besides several smaller maps, the book has the magnificent one of the Pamir constructed for Lord Curzon in 1896. It is on a scale of 1:1,000,000, and extends from Chilas on the Indus to Osh, and from Badakhshan well over Yarkand.

The Jeffersonian Cyclopœdia: A Comprehensive Collection of the Views of Thomas Jefferson. Classified and Arranged in Alphabetical Order under Nine Thousand Titles, etc., etc. Edited by John P. Foley. Funk & Wagnalls. 1900. 4to, pp. 1009.

Works like this of enormous drudgery can seldom receive a proportionate expanse of praise. The task was worthy; it has been executed with intelligence; its utility is unquestioned—this judgment might be conveyed in many words, but who would be the gainer? A dictionary is a mass of items arranged on some rational plan. The merit of such an one as this lies principally in selection. What Mr. Foley has virtually done is to translate all existing indexes into the choice passages for which a student or admirer of Jefferson would naturally resort to such indexes. If the context is wanted, it can be readily procured by following up Mr. Foley's references, which are scrupulously specific. The extracts are dated. In the case of letters, the correspondent is named, and the place where Jefferson was writing. There is a topical index with cross-references; there is a Jeffersonian chronology; and finally an appendix embraces sundry state papers, including the Declaration of Independence (whose "inalienable rights" were *un*alienable in the first draft), the Preamble to the Virginia Constitution, the Bill for Establishing Religious Freedom, the two Presidential inaugural addresses, etc., etc., and, nearly in full, the correspondence touching the reconciliation of Adams and Jefferson. Nothing more need be added to prove the value of this dictionary as a work of reference.

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It is a repertory of Jefferson's own words at first hand. Hence it is by exception that Mr. Foley quotes, in a brief footnote, from Webster's report of Jefferson's interesting conversation concerning Patrick Henry; and we can but regret that he did not add to the testimony to Henry's weight as a leading revolutionist the few lines regarding the magic of his oratory, in the same conversation: "When he had spoken in opposition to my opinion, and produced a great effect, and I myself been highly delighted and moved, I have asked myself, when he ceased, 'What the d——l has he said?' I could never answer the inquiry." Jefferson's autographic account of Henry's oratory is duly excerpted, but with what seems a needless division. In place of "Oratory," we have "Eloquence" and "Force of Oratory," and these are two of no less than twenty-two separate entries under Henry. Some of these rubrics are by no means pat, and the alphabetical order offers no advantage over a logical or even chronological-biographical arrangement. "Declined office" and "Mysterious" would never naturally be sought by any user of the dictionary; "Brilliant but illogical" as little, while, what is more, it conceals a significant characteristic, for the passage in question relates that Henry "could not draw a bill on the most simple subject that would bear legal criticism." A logical ordering would have placed first the sketch of Henry's early manhood, and all the subtitles might have been dispensed with, even if the numbering of the paragraphs was retained.

Our example shows that Mr. Foley, in the wide range he has allowed himself, as was proper in the case of a man of such varied interests and occupations, has not neglected Jefferson's portraits of his contemporaries. The ready divination of Webster's power at their sole meeting is thus retained. But another coming man, dreaded as a Yankee and a religious propagandist, Lyman Beecher, has been omitted, though the passage in which he figures is as Jeffersonian as anything in this great volume. We have already cited it in our notice of Ford's edition of the Writings. Jefferson's sensitive but ineffective conscience on the subject of slavery is illustrated by sixty-six items, filling more than seven pages of the dictionary. War, in the abstract and the concrete, has one hundred and six, beginning (in a letter to Elbridge Gerry, 1797) with, "I abhor war, and view it as the greatest scourge of mankind," which is followed immediately by this (to Humboldt, 1813): "The insulated state in which nature has placed the American continent, should so far avail it that no spark of war kindled in the other quarters of the globe should be wafted across the wide oceans which separate us from them." One hundred and twenty-four items relate to Government. And so we might go on.

Very important is the matter of accurate transcription, and such comparison as we have made disposes us to place the highest confidence in these extracts as a true text, perfectly safe to adopt in all essential particulars. In No. 6349 we detect an *as* of some rhetorical importance dropped before "gradually"; in No. 7298 the phrase "in practice also" should be italicized to agree with Ford and with Jefferson's probable original; in No. 7297 the Italian proverb is rendered grammatical by changing *muove* (Ford) to *muova*—a possible infidelity to Jefferson, but a kindness to those who may quote him. Such trifles hardly deserve mention; nor do the occasional starred omissions, as in 7299, where no space, even, is gained by dropping a personal parenthesis. Everywhere it is manifest that Mr. Foley's intention is to reproduce loyally, and that he has spared no pains. He should have his reward.

It remains to add that the Dictionary is provided with nine portraits of Jefferson and a view of Monticello, a brave array.

Notes on a Century of Typography at the University Press, Oxford, 1693-1794. With annotations and appendixes. By Horace Hart, Hon. M.A., Printer to the University, and Controller of the University Press. Oxford: Printed at the University Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1900.

When John Fell, Dean of Christ Church, in 1670 occupied himself, in his indefatigable way, in importing types and founders from the Continent for Oxford, he may have left unsatisfied the perplexity of him who wrote,

"I do not like you, Dr. Fell;
The reason why I cannot tell,"

but he established a valid claim to the liking of posterity. For he, in conjunction with Francis du Jon (*alias* F. Junius), then laid the foundations of the University Foundry as it exists to-day. The matrices he gave are still preserved in their original boxes, and his Hebrew characters are still used for examination papers. In one particular his zeal was excessive: his haste to begin was such that he put up with the Dutch "height-to-paper," and this "accounts for the un-English 'height' of the Clarendon Press type, which has been a source of trouble ever since its introduction." And so with Junius's contribution: Mr. Hart notes (p. 73) that "the existing fount [of English Swedish], originally [1677] Dutch "height-to-paper, was, in 1887 (with the exception of about 3 lbs. of type still preserved as a curiosity), reduced at Oxford to the Learned Press 'height-to-paper,' to bring the fount into use again." Between the latter standard and the Bible Press height there is an intermediate fount of English Etruscan, and between the London and Bible Press standards a fount of Arabic.

Mr. Hart's fascinating but laborious task was to reproduce the Oxford Specimen books (or sheets) of type, etc., in the period named in the title, so far as they exist; and to combine with this an inventory of such of the stock as has come down. The scheme employed has been most judicious. The facsimile has, where possible, been effected by reëmploying the original type, even by casting anew from the matrices, sometimes by adaptation to fill a gap. Only when necessary has a process plate been resorted to. At every step, Mr. Hart states his procedure, and traces the history of the founts, etc., while reporting upon their actual condition. It is surprising with how much interest he has been able to invest this portion of his undertaking. Sometimes he improves on the Specimen, as in the case of the flowered letters shown on p. 113, where he gives thirteen instead of three; and on pp. 114, 115, eighteen for two. Both series were deeply cut in boxwood, and in the second series, by inverting the L, he shows an engraving of a man's face as grim as his own facetiousness in noting, "The artist, although he did not inscribe his name, may have intended to produce his portrait to be handed down to posterity."

The first Specimen, of 1693, is recorded entire; the rest only as they are supplementary. Not a few of the finer founts from the earliest date have recently been cast anew and used in works issuing from the University Press, so that to a certain extent Mr. Hart has provided a new Specimen Book. One feat of this kind is worth reporting, apropos of the Sclavonian, Great Primer (p. 57):

"As the University of Oxford was the first in England to use Slavic type for printing books, in the year 1695, so now [1893], after a lapse of 200 years, the same University, in celebrating with the invincible prince and people of Montenegro the earliest style of printing among the Servians, has printed the Lord's Prayer at the same Press and in the same type."

As early as 1768 the youthful Bewick had cut diagrams on wood for Dr. Hutton's 'Mensuration,' and for more than ten years before 1794 he had paved the way for book illustration by wood-engraving. Except initial letters, however, none of the century Specimens enumerate any woodcuts, the latest, of 1794, naming only copper-plates, among them three heads of Lord Clarendon, whose name is first attached to the Press ("Clarendon Printing-House") in the 1768 Specimen, though old Hearne had deplored the appellation on October 28, 1713.

"This Morning," he says, "the Printers began to remove from the [Sheldonian] Theater to the New Printing-House just erected, wch is (it seems, out of a Whim) to be called Typographéum Clarendonianum, and Archbp Sheldon is to be forgotten, as a Benefactor to the Oxford Printing, if People will comply with this Whim."

Another innovation in this Specimen was the appearance for the first time of the capital U on the title-page in place of V in Vniversity. It first catalogued, too, bastard type—that is, type whose face was larger or smaller than the body on which it was cast; and in its 1775 supplement are shown examples of pages set with "type with a permanent distance," dispensing with leads. It further shows that the Press had begun to purchase of Caslon and Baskerville. Newface type came in with the 1794 Specimen, along with the "Quousque tandem" selection.

Three appendixes contain much curious matter. One shows old devices and ornaments (still available) and various founts not listed in any Specimen; among them, examples of French castings with nick behind, and the English front nicks supplied by machine cutting. There is a Greek fount cut in 1803 by Vincent Figgins. Greek ligatures, we are told, were abandoned about 1816-1820. Appendix II. exhibits impressions of ancient wood-engravings equally unrecorded. Appendix III. consists of correspondence with Samuel Clarke, first Printer to the University, Dr. Fell, and others, relating to the beginnings of the Press, and is good reading for a student of the art and craft. It also embraces a valuable comparative table of Dutch, French, German, and Oxford type-bodies, with their equivalents in Didot points (whose general adoption, by the way, is naturally overestimated by Mr. Hart's French authority).

The beauty of this folio volume is a delight to the eye, and it is, unhappily, intended for the eyes of only one hundred and fifty possessors. The total product is an honor to the Press, and Mr. Hart's part in

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editing, composing, and printing it is beyond praise. His painstaking has shrunk at nothing except an index.

A Book for All Readers: Designed as an aid to the collection, use, and preservation of books, and the formation of public and private libraries. By Ainsworth Rand Spofford. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900.

Dr. Spofford has collected into this pleasant and useful volume much of the book-wisdom and some of the book-wit gathered during his long experience as librarian-in-chief of the Congressional Library, which he, after years of struggle, has lived to see worthily housed. We have here information as to the acquisition and proper care of books, the management of a library, and all things of special interest to book-lovers; the whole enlivened by many curious particulars and some facetious remarks.

In forming a library of general reading a question which is sure to arise is that of novels. Here Dr. Spofford is wisely conservative. A subscription library that must cater to the public taste in order to exist may be obliged to load its shelves with worthless fiction; but for an endowed library it is sufficient to have a fair representation of each important class of contemporary novels. The function of the library is to instruct and improve, not to furnish amusement. And as the appetite for incessant and indiscriminate novel-reading seems to be growing to a disease, the librarian who properly feels the importance of his calling will at least avoid pandering to it.

An interesting chapter is given to the enemies of books, chief of which are dust, damp, overheating, gas, insects, mice, and thieves. With brushes, ventilation, electricity, poison, and traps the librarian can deal with the lower degrees of the scale; but to escape the book-pilferer, short of the heroic remedy of "keeping a man standing by each book with a club," is a difficult problem where the public has free access to the shelves. We are pained to learn from concurrent authorities, that this is a weakness to which clergymen seem especially prone. The late Dr. Poole, the Chicago librarian, found ministers "more remiss" in this respect than any other class; and when, as we are told, the remissness went to the extent of removing the book-plates and library stamp, and concealing the alterations by pasting in new linings, even charity can hardly attribute the dereliction to absence of mind.

With Dr. Spofford's suggestions for dealing with that torment of the librarian, pamphlets, we cannot entirely concur. When all that are of consequnce have been bound, singly or collectively, or filed in pamphlet-cases, there will always remain a mass of miscellaneous pamphlets which seem to have no value, yet any one of which somebody, at some time, may want to see. To tie these up in bundles or heap them in piles in a cellar or garret, is little better than sending them to the junk-shop. A better plan, we think, is this: Have a room, if possible—if not, a set of shelves—devoted to miscellaneous pamphlets. Give each pamphlet when received an accession-number written in bold figures on the front cover, and place it on the shelf in the order of its accession, irrespective of date or subject. Guide-numbers, at intervals of 20 or 25, can be placed on the edges of the shelves, or guide-cards between the pamphlets. The accession-series should be distinct from that of the main library, and there is no need of an accession-book. Catalogue briefly under the subject (in either the general or a special catalogue) with a symbol to indicate that the number refers to miscellaneous pamphlets. The reader who finds from the catalogue that the library has a pamphlet on the subject he is studying, gives the number to the assistant, who by the guide-numbers on the shelves can lay his hand on it in a few seconds.

One of the most interesting chapters in the book is devoted to binding, of which the various processes, styles, and technicalities are clearly explained. Hints to readers not accustomed to great libraries, and to librarians how to help such readers, are also given, with some remarks on the art of finding references and quotations.

Rare books are discussed, and due warning given to the inexpert buyer not to be deceived by "very rare" or "unique" in catalogues. Putting incunabula aside, no book is necessarily rare because it is old. But if he should be the lucky possessor of the Latin Psalter of Fust and Schoeffer, 1459, it may interest him to know that a copy brought £4,950 at the Syston sale in 1884, being the highest recorded price for a single printed volume. Or if among old rubbish in his garret he finds a copy of the 'Bay Psalm Book,' 1640, let him not part with it lightly, for it is worth over a thousand dollars.

The Causes of the War of 1792. By J. H. Clapham, M. A., Fellow of Kings College, Cambridge. Cambridge (Eng.). University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1899.

Opinion regarding the broad ideas of the French Revolution will, naturally, change with the sentiments of each succeeding age. But what shall be said regarding all our new knowledge of the facts of the Revolution? If any one thinks that history is unprogressive, let him place side by side our present information concerning the affairs of France from 1789 to 1815, and that which was available to Mignet, Thiers, and Lamartine. Without indicating all the points of advance, one may say that nowhere has change of view been more noticeable than in what relates to the diplomatic history of the early Revolution. Among the assumptions of a former age, none had a show of greater certainty than that which represented the foreign policy of France, 1791-95, as wholly irregular, and, like everything else, revolutionary. However, within the last twenty-five years a marked change of attitude has taken place. Mr. Clapham describes the current tendency when he says:

"The school of French writers which has devoted itself to the study of the unity of national life, and to the undermining of the cataclysmic theories of the Revolution, is rapidly laying bare the points of contact between the diplomacy of the Revolutionary leaders and that of the statesmen of the old order. As a result of their work it is becoming increasingly necessary, in the study of the great wars, to lay stress on the influence of ancient diplomatic traditions and ancient international rivalries."

Mr. Clapham's book springs from a prize essay, the Prince Consort dissertation of 1898. Like other republished prize essays, it has been enlarged since it served its first purpose, and it now makes a volume of moderate size. According to the regulations for the award, "original research" is the touchstone to which each essay offered in competition must be brought, and in Mr. Clapham's case there is proof that Lord Acton's régime at Cambridge has prompted patient and impartial study at first hand. Mr. Clapham is widely read, is accurate, and is thoughtful. The more important strictures which we feel bound to pass upon the quality of his work are but two in number. He occasionally writes a sentence which must be read a second time before its full meaning is apparent, and he is a little overcautious about committing himself to an opinion. So far from finding any trace whatever of dogmatism, one would welcome a little more directness and incisiveness at points where a well fortified historian should make his position clear.

Mr. Clapham begins by sketching the general relations of France with other European states at the outset of the Revolution, and really closes with April 20, 1792, although a chapter of epilogue carries the narrative forward by another three months, or until the Duke of Brunswick's proclamation. Pitt's consistent neutrality during the period prior to the regicide renders the part of England a slight one in such a study as this. Accordingly, Mr. Clapham can give almost all his attention to the policy of the Continental courts, particularly to those of Vienna and Potsdam. St. Petersburg, Madrid, Stockholm, and Turin fill a place in the near background, while afar off one can catch a glimpse of the Sublime Porte. Two governments, and two alone, acted between 1789 and 1792 from a sense of conviction. England and Sweden both had a settled policy. The one was throughout neutral, the other hostile to France. Spain, under Florida Blanca, was also hostile at heart, but had no courage to express her true feelings. The other states temporized for over two years, not by reason of apathy, but because the motives which appealed to them were so many and so varied in character.

Austria, of all the Continental Powers, suffered the most from the wars of the Revolution. There is a Hindustani proverb to the effect that it makes little difference whether the knife falls on the melon or the melon on the knife: in both cases it is the melon which gets damaged. So it proved with Austria from Valmy to Wagram. When we think what these wars cost the Hapsburg provinces, the attitude of the Viennese Foreign Office towards the Legislative Assembly takes on a special importance. But even without looking into the future, the policy of Leopold and Kaunitz is more remarkable than that of Catharine or of Frederick William II. Let us glance at what Mr. Clapham says concerning the development of Austrian hostility to French radicalism.

At the moment when the States-General met, the leading factors of the situation, from the Hapsburg standpoint, were as follows: Austria and France had been, in spite of much murmuring on the part of the French, fast allies for more than forty years; the Emperor's sister, Marie Antoinette, was married to the King of France; Prussia and Austria regarded each other with mutual suspicion; and, for the sake of providing a safeguard against Prussian greed of territory, Austria had joined Russia in a war against the Porte. The Polish question also remained unsettled. Like the majority of sovereigns,

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Leopold thought at first that the Revolution would merely weaken France, reducing her, perhaps, to the rank of a second-rate Power. Despite the old alliance of the Seven Years' War and the recent marriage connection, he cared little for the political mishaps of Louis XVI. So long as government in France did not yield to anarchy, he could view with pleasure any weakening of the royal prestige. Moreover, he had not long before been the reforming Grand Duke of Tuscany, and looked with some favor upon moderate liberals. What Austria needed was peace. She joined in the Turkish war only to please Russia, and she would have welcomed the preservation of the *status quo* in Poland. Here her worst dread was that Prussia and Russia would annex fresh portions without giving her just compensation.

Leopold thus had strong motives for letting affairs work themselves out at Paris, unmolested by him. What led him, and eventually Kaunitz, to favor the declaration of war for which the Brissotins and the Comte de Narbonne also longed? Was it fear that France might encourage the Belgian revolution? Or that she would not act fairly towards the Elector of Trier and the Rhenish princes of the Empire? Or did the Comte d'Artois and the emigrants make an impression at Vienna? We feel confident that none of these partial motives can account for Leopold's change of front. Indeed, so far as the emigrants are concerned, he had a hearty dislike of them. The real causes of his final resolve to fight the Revolution were a growing dread of its doctrines, alarm for the safety of Marie Antoinette and her husband, a belief that the Legislative Assembly could easily be browbeaten, and the certainty of securing Frederick William II. for an ally.

Mr. Clapham's monograph contains comparatively few theories, but very many facts. He advances by short stages, keeping the Powers in touch with each other at each stage. The history of diplomatic negotiations requires great fulness of detail, and so many shifting interests were involved at every court that we have only attempted to say a word about Vienna. But we must express our pleasure at the just censure which Mr. Clapham metes out to Von Sybel for judging the political morality of Prussia by a far less rigorous standard than that which he applies to France. This is a valuable study, and we hope that it may add freshness to more than one university lecture.

The Theory of Electrolytic Dissociation, and Some of its Applications. By Harry C. Jones. Macmillan. 1900. 8vo, pp. 289.

The theory of electrolytic dissociation was originally proposed by the penetration of Clausius as far back as 1857, not as an hypothesis, but as a deduction from acknowledged facts. Clausius reasoned that since the smallest electromotive force suffices to decompose an electrolyte into its ions, without violation of Ohm's law, it followed that the current did not do the work of decomposing the molecules of the electrolyte into its ions. Whence it further followed that these molecules must be already decomposed; in other words, that in a solution of common salt, a part, small or large, of the molecules of chloride of sodium must be decomposed and be present as isolated atoms (not ordinary molecules) of sodium and of chlorine. But this was such a startling idea—it seemed so incredible that an innocent solution of common salt should contain such powerful reagents as nascent sodium and chlorine—that the theory found no acceptance, especially as the proposition did not seem to lead to any further correlation of facts.

In 1877 the botanist Pfeffer published a book (translated in Harper's Science Series) in which he gave the results of numerous experiments by him upon a phenomenon first discovered long before by Traube, that of osmotic pressure. Namely, when a membrane forms a partition between a solution and a quantity of the pure solvent, if it happens that the solvent can pass through the membrane, while the dissolved substance cannot, then the pure solvent will flow into the solution, until a certain difference of pressure has been established, called the osmotic pressure. Now Pfeffer's experiments showed that for dilute solutions of any given substance the osmotic pressure was proportional to the quantity of that solvent in solution—a fact which, if it attracted his attention at all, probably appeared natural enough to him, and to which he attached no particular significance. But one day, as the physical chemist Van't Hoff was going home from his laboratory, he met a colleague who had been repeating some of Pfeffer's experiments, and who mentioned to him the proportionality of the osmotic pressure to the concentration of the solution. To Van't Hoff's trained mind, this meant no less than that the dissolved substance had a pressure proportional to its density, or, in other words, was in a quasi-gaseous condition.

To many a man familiar with the kinetical theory of gases, this analogy would have seemed strained, because he would have regarded it as the essential characteristic of gases, to which the law of Bayle is due, that the molecules have rectilinear paths. The exacter conception of Van 't Hoff was that that law is the consequence, not of the rectilinear paths, but of the fact that the molecules are so far separated from one another that their mutual attractions and repulsions have no considerable effect. But now, according to the law of Avogadro, the pressure of a given gas must be the same as that of the same number of molecules of hydrogen in the same volume and at the same temperature. Was the osmotic pressure, then, of the right amount? After a preliminary inquiry into the applicability of the law of Charles, or Gay-Lussac, Van 't Hoff succeeded in showing that this was precisely true for many substances in solution, while for many others it was not at all true, the osmotic pressure in these cases being always too great. At this point Arrhenius, whose pupil Van 't Hoff had been, and who had privately been informed of his results before their publication, remarked that all the exceptions were electrolytes, and that excessive pressures in those cases would be required by the kinetical theory of gases, if the deduction of Clausius were admitted. That was in 1887, and from that moment the theory of ionic dissociation began to fulfil the function of correlating facts.

In the volume before us, Mr. Harry Jones, known by his contributions to this branch of chemistry, sets forth the evidences of the theory, and shows that it must be accepted as positively proved. Of course, we do not know in what state the dissociated atoms may be. Possibly, for example, they may be combined with atoms of the ether, which may be of different chemical kinds. But it does seem that chemical physics is now upon a path which may probably bring us out to a clearer view of the nature of atoms and of molecules.

Mr. Jones's book is, in some respects, not unskilfully put together. His argument is clear, consecutive, and convincing. We think his readers will generally regret that he has not placed before them more extended synopses of the facts, in lieu of a few at each point that have been selected as being favorable to the theory. It may be doubted, too, whether the representation of the doctrine of electrolytic dissociation as the pivot upon which all the physical chemistry of the day turns, is quite accurate in its perspective. The non-electrolytes are of a good deal of importance.

About a third of the volume is occupied with applications of the theory to physics, chemistry, and physiology. The most interesting of these have been before the English reader for some years—as has, indeed, the whole subject, though it has not before been so well set forth.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alleman, Julia S. Postmarked "Colima." Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. $1.25.
Bain, R. Nisbet. The Daughter of Peter the Great. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $4.
Balfour, Marie C. Side Lights on the Reign of Terror: Being the Memoirs of Mlle. des Echerolles. John Lane.
Bouroff, B. The Impending Crisis: Conditions Resulting from the Concentration of Wealth in the United States. Chicago: Midway Press Committee. 25c.
Brownell, C. L. Tales from Tokio. New York: Warner & Brownell.
Burke, E. The Sublime and Beautiful. Cassells. 10c.
Carpenter, F. G. South America, Social, Industrial and Political. New York: The Saalfield Publishing Co.
Chapman, Rev. J. W. Revivals and Missions. New York: Lentilhon & Co. 60c.
Colquhoun, A. R. Russia against India: The Struggle for Asia. Harpers. $1.50.
Crane, W. B. Odd Tales. New York: M. Witmark & Sons.
Davie, O. Methods in the Art of Taxidermy. Philadelphia: David McKay. $2.50.
Foley, J. P. The Jeffersonian Cyclopedia: A Comprehensive Collection of the Views of Thomas Jefferson, Classified and Arranged in Alphabetical Order under Nine Thousand Titles. Funk & Wagualls Co. $7.50.
Gould, Elizabeth P. Anne Gilchrist and Walt Whitman. Philadelphia: David McKay. $1.
Harper, W. H. "Restraint of Trade": Pros and Cons of Trusts in Facts and Principles. Chicago: The Author. 50c.
Hewes, H. F. Anatomy, Physiology and Hygiene for High Schools. American Book Co. $1.
Hoadley, Prof. G. A. A Brief Course in General Physics, Experimental and Applied. American Book Co. $1.20.
Hoffman, F. L. History of the Prudential Insurance Company of America 1875-1900. The Prudential Press.
Hopkins, J. H. A History of Political Parties in the United States. Putnams. $2.50.
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Killikelly, Sarah H. Curious Questions in History, Literature, Art, and Social Life; Designed as a Manual of General Information. Philadelphia: David McKay. Vol. III. $2.
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Langsdorf, Prof. W. B. Seneca's (I.) Tranquillity of Mind, (II.) Providence. Putnams. $1.
Lauer. Ph. Le Règne de Louis IV. d'Outre-Mer. Paris: Emile Bouillon. 12 fr.
Lee, S. Dictionary of National Biography. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Macmillan. Vol. LXIII.; Wordsworth—Zuylestein. $3.75. Also Indexes to Vols. I. to XIV.
Miller, Olive T. The First Book of Birds. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Modern British Water-Color Drawings [Summer Number of "The Studio," 1900]. New York: "The Studio." 5s.
Moorehead, W. K., and Others. Prehistoric Implements: A Reference Book. Cincinnati, O.: The Robert Clarke Co. $2.30.
Prentice, W. R. History of New York State, for the use of High Schools and Academies and for Supplementary Reading. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. $1.50.
Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Second Series. Vol. XIII. 1899, 1900. Boston: Published by the Society.
Webster, W. F. English: Composition and Literature. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 90c.

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